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CHEMISTRY, ANATOMY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

THE Croonian Lecture on the Arrangement and Mechanical Action of the Muscles of Fishes. *By* Anthony Carlisle, *Esq. F.R.S. F.L.S.*—The structure and action of the muscles of fish are, in many respects, obviously different from those of other animals; and in presenting to us his observations on this subject, Mr. Carlisle begins by offering some remarks on the purposes which are fulfilled by the several fins. Those which are disposed in pairs appear to be the apparatus by which the animal is enabled to turn its body, or to stop its progress; the single fins prevent the rolling of the body; and the tail seems to be principally useful in impelling it forwards. The effect of the individual fins was ascertained by cutting them off separately in a number of fish, and observing the nature of their motions in the various cases.

Mr. C. next describes the formation of the great muscles, which constitute the bulk of the body; their general appearance is well known, as composed of a number of separate flakes, forming distinct arrangements, which the author calls series; and of which there are four; the dorsal, the vertebral, the abdominal, and the ventral. It is observed that the muscular power of fish is very considerable for a short time, so as to be capable of great velocity, but that it is soon exhausted; and Mr. C. remarks that the mechanism of the muscles is such as is known to produce similar effects in other cases, while an opposite structure is found to prevail in those instances in which velocity is sacrificed to power.

Chemical Experiments on Guaiacum. *By* Mr. Wm. Brande.—In his inquiries respecting this substance, the author first gives an account of its sensible properties, and afterward of its habitudes with different re-agents. Alcohol dissolves very nearly

the whole of it; acids will precipitate it from the solution; and some singular changes take place in the color of the precipitate, when the nitric and oxymuriatic acids are employed, which appear to depend on the different degrees of oxidation that it undergoes in the process. By destructive distillation, guaiacum was found to contain 3 per cent. of lime, but no trace of fixed alkali could be detected. In its general properties, it approaches the most nearly to the class of resinous bodies, but in some circumstances it differs from them,

'1. By affording a portion of vegetable extract.

'2. By the curious alterations which it undergoes when subjected to the action of bodies, which readily communicate oxygen, such as nitric and oxy-muriatic acids; and the rapidity with which it dissolves in the former.

'3. By being converted into a more perfect resin; in which respect guaiacum bears some resemblance to the green resin which constitutes the colouring matter of the leaves of trees, &c.

'4. By yielding oxalic acid.

'5. By the quantity of charcoal and lime which are obtained from it when subjected to destructive distillation.'

On the Direction of the Radicle and Germen during the Vegetation of Seeds. *By* Thomas Andrew Knight, *Esq. F.R.S.*— It is commonly known that, when a seed begins to vegetate, the germen always points upwards, while the radicle as invariably tends to the opposite direction; and that, in whatever manner the seed be turned, these parts still preserve their relative situation. In order to ascertain the cause of this phænomenon, Mr. Knight instituted the following experiments. A number of beans were placed in the circumference of a wheel, which was caused to revolve with rapidity in a vertical direction. After some time, they began to vegetate, and the result was that their radicles were all turned outwards, while the germens shot towards the centre.— Other beans were then placed in the circumference of a wheel which revolved horizontally; in this case the roots pointed outwards, but were at the same time depressed below the level of the wheel, while the shoots all tended inwards, but were somewhat elevated. The more rapid was the motion of the wheel, the less the parts of the plants deviated from the horizontal position.

From these trials, the author concludes that the direction of the radicles and germens depends on the force of gravity, and he proposes to shew how the same power can produce effects apparently so opposite to each other. To elucidate this difficulty, we have only to attend to the manner in which the growth of these parts is effected. The radicle is extended by

new particles successively added to its point, which will naturally attach themselves to its most depending part: while the germen, on the other hand, is lengthened by the expansion of a structure previously organized, in consequence of the force of the sap contained in its vessels. From this circumstance it follows that, when the point of the germen is bent from its natural position, and the sap is accumulated in the lower side, by its propulsive power it will give the part a tendency to shoot towards the opposite side, and will thus bring it back to the perpendicular direction.—Mr. Knight's explanation appears to us simple and ingenious, and his conclusions are very plausible, if not absolutely established.

A third Series of Experiments on an artificial Substance, which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin; with some Remarks on Coal. By Charles Hatchett, *Esq. F.R.S.*—Our readers will perceive with pleasure that Mr. Hatchett has continued his curious and interesting experiments on the artificial production of tannin. In his last paper, he gave an account of the action of the sulphuric acid on turpentine, resin, and camphor; and the present is chiefly occupied with the effects of the same re-agent on a number of other vegetable substances, including many of the resins, balsams, mucilages, and gums. The result was that the third variety of the artificial tannin is formed in different proportions from the greatest part of them, accompanied by a quantity of coaly residuum.—The paper, which is of considerable length, contains the results of several series of experiments; which, though all tending to the same point, are so far unconnected, that it would be difficult to give any abstracted account of the whole: we shall therefore only select a few of the facts which appear most interesting.

Pure resinous bodies yielded tannin in a large quantity, but little or none was produced from the extracts and gum-resins. It was also procured from linseed oil, wax, and fat: but, if the action of the acid was too long continued, the tannin was converted into a kind of coal.—Some curious experiments were made on roasted vegetable matters. By the operation of roasting, any small quantity of tannin which they might previously have contained was destroyed: but, if a decoction formed from them was treated with nitric acid, tannin was re-produced in a considerable quantity; and it seems probable that, by repeating the process for a sufficient number of times, the whole of them might have been converted into this peculiar substance. It appears likewise that, in the putrefaction of vegetables, the carbon is reduced to a state very similar to that of coal;

and if nitric acid be then applied to it, tannin is also formed.

Mr. Hatchett observes, generally, that acids exercise a considerable solvent power over resinous bodies; the acetous acid dissolves them without altering their composition; while the sulphuric, as we have already stated, in the progress of the solution, converts them first into tannin, and afterward into a kind of coal. The formation of coal appears, therefore, to be the ultimate effect of sulphuric acid on resins; and it exercises an action in some measure similar, on all vegetable substances. This fact leads the author to speculate on the formation of those immense masses of coal which exist in various parts of the world; and, after having noticed the different theories which have been proposed, he concludes that it is most probable that they are derived from vegetable substances which have been mineralized by some unknown process, in which it may be conjectured that the sulphuric acid has borne a principal share.

We learn with regret that Mr. Hatchett does not intend, at least for the present, to pursue any farther the subject of these experiments. Considering them in their full extent, we do not hesitate to characterize them as the most important series of chemical facts which have, for a long time, been laid before the public, both with respect to the discoveries that are immediately communicated by them, and the information which they bestow on the composition of vegetable bodies in general.

An Account of a small Lobe of the human prostate Gland, which has not before been taken notice of by Anatomists. By Everard Home, *Esq. F.R.S.*—It had been hitherto supposed that the *vasa deferentia* passed along the division of the prostate gland, in close contact with the bladder: but we learn from Mr. Home's discovery that a small part of the prostate is interposed between them, and that they pass through a circular aperture, formed by the union of this new lobe with the two which have been previously known to us. Mr. Home's discovery is not a matter of mere curiosity; since it would appear that the disease of the prostate, when an obstruction is opposed to the flow of the urine, generally commences in this part, and may be exclusively situated in it; and when this is the case, the disease cannot be detected by the usual method of examination, a circumstance which must materially influence both our opinion concerning the complaint, and our practice in it. From the statement contained in this paper, there seems no doubt of the existence of this small lobe; and

yet

yet we cannot but express our surprize that it should have been overlooked in a part so frequently and so carefully examined.

so far Bos.

MATHEMATICS and ASTRONOMY.

The Bakerian Lecture on the Force of Percussion. *By* William Hyde Wollaston, *M.D. Sec. R.S.*—On this subject we have lately, on one or two occasions *, expressed our opinion; and we are happy to find that it agrees with that of the learned Secretary, as expressed in this paper.—If seven men pull against one horse, and exactly balance the horse's effort, then we may use the word *force*, and say that the *force* of the seven men equals the *force* of the horse. This kind of force is to be estimated by the product of the matter and of the *virtual* velocity: but then there is another kind of force; or, more properly, it is convenient to use this term separately, or accompanied with an adjective to designate another kind of action.—Seven men employed during the day can raise a weight *w* through the space *s*; and *w s* is the measure of their *force*, the measure of their mechanic force. If the horse raises, in the day, a weight *W* through a space *S*, then *WS* is the measure of his *mechanic force*. In a similar manner, we may compare the effects of mills, steam engines, &c.; and this species of force, called mechanic, varies not as the velocity, but as the square of the velocity:

'But of this quantity of force (says Dr. W.) Newton no where treats, and has accordingly given no definition of it. If, after defining what he meant by the *quantitas acceleratrix*, and *quantitas motrix*, he had had occasion to convey an equally distinct idea of the *quantitas mechanica* resulting from the continued action of any force, he might, not improbably, have proceeded conformably to the definition given by Smeaton, and have added

'——quantitas mechanica est mensura proportionalis spatio per quod data vis motrix exercetur;

or, if speaking with reference to the accumulated energy communicated to a body in motion,

'——— proportionalis quadrato velocitatis quam in dato corpore generat.

'But, if we attend to the words of his preface to the first edition of his *Principia*, he evidently had no need of such a definition;

"Nos autem non artibus sed philosophiæ consulentes, deque potentiis non manualibus sed naturalibus scribentes," &c.

'And again, nearly to the same effect in the *Scholium*, which follows the laws of motion, "Cæterum mechanicam tractare non est hujus instituti."

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* See our accounts of Carnot,—*Equil. et Mouv.*—and Robison's Mechanical Philosophy.

'In the third law of motion he has on the contrary been supposed to speak of this force from an ambiguity in the signification of the words *actio* and *re-actio*. By these, however, Newton certainly meant a mere *vis motrix* or pressure, as he himself explains them. "Quicquid premit vel trahit alterum, tantundem ab eo premitur vel trahitur. Si quis lapidem digito premit, premitur et hujus digitus a lapide", &c. The same meaning is equally evident from his demonstration of the third corollary to the laws, in which he asserts that the *quantitas motûs* of two or more bodies estimated in any given direction is not altered by their action upon each other. The demonstration begins thus:

"Etenim actio eique contraria re-actio æquales sunt per legem tertiam, ideoque per legem secundam æquales in motibus efficient mutationes versus contrarias partes." Now, if he had considered the third law as implying equality of more than mere moving forces, there could have been no occasion to refer to the second law, with a view thence to deduce the equality of momenta produced.

'Some authors however have interpreted the third law differently, and accordingly have expressed a difficulty in comprehending the simple illustration given by Newton. When they say that action is equal to re-action, they mean not only that the instantaneous intensity of the moving forces, or pressures opposed to each other, are necessarily equal, but conceive also a species of accumulated force residing in a moving body, which is capable of resisting pressure during a *time* that is proportional to its momentum or quantitas motûs.

'If it be of any real utility to give the name of force to this complex idea of *vis motrix* extended through time, as well as that of *momentum* to its effects when unresisted, it would be requisite to distinguish this force always by some such appellation as *momental* force; for it is to be apprehended that for want of this distinction many writers themselves, and it is certain that many readers of disquisitions on this subject, have confounded and compared together *vis motrix*, *momentum*, and *vis mechanica*: quantities, that are all of them totally dissimilar, and bear no more comparison to each other, than lines to surfaces, or surfaces to solids.

'In practical merchanics, however, it is at least very rarely that the *momentum* of bodies is in any degree an object of consideration: the strength of machinery being in every case to be adapted to the *quantitas motrix*, and the extent and value of the effect to be produced depending upon the *quantitas mechanica* of the force applied, or in other words to the space through which a given vis motrix is exerted.'

This passage is well worthy of notice, especially since, in the controversy concerning the measure of force, it deprives those who have been styled Newtonians, of the great authority of Newton.

Mémoire sur les Quantités imaginaires. Par M. Buée.—Much has been written on the subject of imaginary Quantities. Euler,

Euler, Foncenex, &c. have inserted in the foreign Transactions distinct memoirs on their nature; and the present author has explained their properties, uses, and powers, through sixty-eight quarto pages. The discussion is rather long; and, to put the reader at once into possession of our opinion, rather tedious, and quite unsatisfactory.

We presume that, before the invention of Algebraical language, signs such as $+$, $-$, $\sqrt{-1}$ had no unborn and embryo meaning, but were hidden in utter darkness. The first two signs were invented for representing compendiously, or rather for indicating compendiously, the operations of addition and subtraction. In an advanced cultivation of the Algebraic Art, and in its extended and varied application, the signification of these signs was extended. After the employment of the radical $\sqrt{\ }$, in the course of an algebraical process, such quantities as these would appear, $\sqrt{(x^2-a^2)}$ &c. In particular instances, x might $= o$: then the symbol would become $\sqrt{-a^2}$ or $a\sqrt{-1}$; and if such symbol occurred in the result of a process, it would signify that the conditions, on which the process had been founded, were absurd, or inconsistent with each other. It would be easy to give instances in which this sign $\sqrt{-1}$ would appear: but in all cases, the sign must result from the previous invention of other symbols and modes of representation.— M. Buée has found an essential and sole meaning of the symbol $\sqrt{-1}$: which, he says, means perpendicularity; and perpendicularity only; and to prove this, he erects a perpendicular, which is equal to the product of two equal lines measured from the point in which the perpendicular cuts the line, contrary ways: that is, if we call a one line, and $-a$ the other, the perpendicular $= \sqrt{a}.-a = \sqrt{-a^2}$. If this be reduced to a plain and intelligible statement, all that can be asserted is that, consequently to certain assumptions, a line p may be represented by $\sqrt{-a^2}$ or $\sqrt{-1}$. M. Buée, however, will probably be adverse to such reduction; since, he says, after having been speaking of the designation of perpendicularity, '*Le signe* $\sqrt{-1}$ *exprime tout cela, et il est le seul qui l'exprime.*'

In order to confirm and illustrate his opinion, M. Buée takes several examples; some from M. Carnot, (*Géometrie de Position*,) as for example the following: a right line (AB) being given, to find in this right line a point K, such that the product AK, BK shall equal a given quantity: for instance, half the square of AB. It is plain that the point K cannot be between A and B: for the greatest rectangle then between the two

parts would equal $\frac{a^2}{4}$; and the resolution of the equation $\frac{a^2}{2} = ax - x^2$ would indicate the same impossibility. The point K must then be taken in the prolongation of the line: in which case, an equation such as $x^2 - ax = \frac{a^2}{2}$ appears; the solution of which is possible, and the value of x resolves the question. The example is a proper one to shew the introduction of imaginary symbols; while the inferences that may easily be drawn from their appearance are so obvious, that they cannot escape the notice of the most inattentive observer, and so satisfactory that they cannot fail to convince a mind that is not bent on a rambling search for unequivocal novelties and mysterious trifles. Yet M. Buée is dissatisfied with Carnot's reasonings. One of the equations, introduced by the algebraical statement, he finds to belong to a circle, of which *the radius is imaginary*; and the second, to an equilateral hyperbola. He employs the same equations as M. Carnot, but, reasoning after his own method, he finds *five solutions*; whereas according to the former there are only two. Deprived of the use of a diagram, we cannot present to our readers the scheme of a circle described with an imaginary radius. Under a slight variation of circumstances, the radius becomes *a broken line*, (*ligne brisée*,) and the abscissa x, '*une ligne brisée formée de deux lignes perpendiculaires l'une à l'autre*,' a broken line formed of two lines perpendicular to each other.—From this account, imperfect as it is, our mathematical readers perhaps may think that very little is gained by the three additional solutions. Indeed, admitting that they can, on certain hypotheses, be put under somewhat of an intelligible form, must they be not perfectly unintelligible to the mere algebraist? May not he say, that the explanation of the language which he uses is fundamentally false; since, in order to introduce such explanation, there must be formed new subjects for the application of the language?

Though surrounded by the grim forms of imaginary quantities, we cannot forbear smiling at the introduction of the third problem:—'*Cette question parôit evidemment absurde; resolvons la.*'—Is not this the extreme of mathematical temerity? *Aude aliquid*, &c.

Problem the fourth is this: let there be two square planes: let the side of one exceed the side of the other by 2 feet, and let the number of square feet contained in the two together be 1. What are the dimensions of the planes?—A person, we apprehend, needs not to have taken large draughts at the mathematical

matical fount, in order to perceive the palpable absurdity of this question: a mathematician would not put it into equation; M. Buée, however, puts it into equation, resolves it, and then says, 'The values of x are imaginary. The question which they resolve is impossible, if at the same time we suppose these squares *without thickness and without void*, (*sans epaisseur et sans vuides*). But if we suppose them to have some thickness or *some void*, then the question is no longer impossible.' The question, put into algebraic language, is $x^2 + 2x + 2 = \frac{1}{2}$; whence $x = -1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}}$.

'The side of one of the squares (says M. Buée) is $-1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}}$, and the side of the other $+1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}}$; $-1 \pm \sqrt{-1}$ indicate two lines, one of which is perpendicular to the other. Consequently, if $(-1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}})$ indicates a single line, one of the two quantities which compose $(-1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}})$ indicates the length of this line; and the other, the thickness of its extreme point. They cannot express one the *length* and the other the *breadth*, since it is the very essence of a square, expressed algebraically, that its length and breadth should have the same expression. It is the same with $1 \pm \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}}$.'

Travelling on through these imaginary regions, M. Buée touches with his mystical wand the two squares, which he finds to be perfectly useless as mere planes, and transforms them into a convenient *box* (*boite*). 'This box contains only (says he) planes without thickness. The thicknesses of the sides of the required squares would be the heights of these two halves of the box. The required squares would be its two ends, the one at top, the other at bottom.'—In the next article, he says that $\pm \sqrt{-1}$ has no arithmetical signification, but $\pm \sqrt{-1} \times \pm \sqrt{-1} = (-1^2)$ has one: -1^2 is a *subtractive square*, and consequently forms *a void* in the middle of a full surface. Thence it follows that, when we treat of squares in general, or of planes, the sign $\sqrt{-1}$ may indicate *voids*, instead of indicating perpendiculars:—'But the perpendiculars neither diminish nor augment the lengths of the lines to which they are perpendicular. If then we substitute *voids* (*vuides*) for perpendiculars, and *full spaces* (*pleins*) instead of lines, to which they are perpendicular, these *void or hollow parts* ought not to diminish the *full*. It is necessary then to make an *addition of a void*, and not *a subtraction of a full*: but to add *voids* to a surface is to augment its dimensions, without augmenting the number of square feet which it contains; it is to augment it geometrically, without augmenting it arithmetically, &c.'

The

The author has distinguished the emphatical parts and important passages by putting them in italics, and we have done the same: but to us such parts and passages are the most perplexing and unintelligible. Others are also to us bewildering and intricate; and indeed, in our journey through this whole memoir, we never found ourselves in broad sunshine, but were always either in obscurity and doubtful light, or in total darkness.

We have, as we hope, sufficiently expressed our opinion of this paper. Although it may not be told in "sober sadness," yet it is possible "to speak truth laughingly." After a very slight advance into the memoir, we resolved not to enter angrily into the discussion: but we found that we could not at once keep our countenance and our temper. Instead of serious and solemn confutation, we have quoted one or two passages, which argue for us; and now we take our leave of M. Buée, and of his wonder-working Impossibles, without anger, but not entirely without regret: since the credit of our Royal Society has been slightly impaired, and our own time has been unprofitably occupied.

The Application of a Method of Differences to the Species of Series whose Sums are obtained, by Mr. Landen, by the help of impossible Quantities. By Mr. Benjamin Gompertz.—The algebraical representation of the sine and cosine of an arc, by means of the symbol $\sqrt{-1}$, and the base of the system of hyperbolic logarithms, in many cases, greatly facilitates the summation of series, the terms of which involve the sines and cosines of multiple arcs. Thus, if α, β, represent the roots of the equation $x^2+1=0$, then e being the number (271 &c.) the hyperbolic logarithm of which $=1$,

$$\text{sin. } z = \frac{e^{\alpha z} - e^{\beta z}}{2\alpha}$$

$$\text{cos. } z = \frac{e^{\alpha z} + e^{\beta z}}{2}$$

Similarly, $\text{cos. } 2z = \frac{e^{2\alpha z} + e^{2\beta z}}{2}$

and $\text{cos. } nz = \frac{e^{n\alpha z} + e^{n\beta z}}{2}$

Hence might easily be obtained the sum of a series, such as

cos.

cos. z + 2 cos. 2. z + 3. cos. 3 z +, &c. since it would equal

$$\frac{1}{2}\left\{\frac{e^{\alpha z}}{(1-e^{\alpha z})^2}+\frac{e^{\beta z}}{(1-e^{\beta z})^2}\right\}$$

which expression, if the occasion called for it, might easily be transformed into an expression involving cosines.

A similar method might be applied to a series such as

cos. z + 3 cos. 2 z + 6 cos. 3 z +, &c.

and we might conveniently avail ourselves of a theorem given by De Moivre in his *Miscellanea Analytica*, for summing a series, the nth order of the differences of the coefficients of the series being equal.

Euler has employed the exponential expression for trigonometrical lines; and, in several papers in the Petersburgh Memoirs, he has thus solved series similar to those which we have mentioned.

In the method before us, Impossible Quantities are not employed: but, by the aid of certain trigonometrical theorems, of no great difficulty, Mr. Gompertz solves, generally, series such as

A cos. z + B. cos. 2 z + C. cos. 3 z +, &c.

The memoir is long, and somewhat intricate. We must be contented, therefore, to recommend the perusal of it to mathematicians: since any thing like a particular examination of it would lead us into *longueurs*, against which the generality of our readers would vehemently exclaim.

On the Quantity and Velocity of the Solar Motion. By William Herschell, *LL.D. F.R.S.*—The determination of the solar velocity, and of the point in the heavens towards which the sun is moving, seems a favourite object of inquiry with Dr. H. Ordinary difficulties do not deter him; and he possesses, it must be confessed, greater means of information, on subjects like the present, than any other astronomer. We are continually attentive to his discoveries and inferences; and we still hope for more satisfactory information on this curious and doubtful subject, the Solar Velocity, than either his preceding or the present memoir has afforded us.—The distinction between the quantity and the velocity of the solar motion, and the object of this paper, may be understood from the following extract:

'The proper motions, when reduced to one direction, have been called quantities, to distinguish them from the velocities required in the moving stars to produce those motions. It will be necessary to keep

keep up the same distinction with respect to the velocity of the solar motion; for till we are better acquainted with the parallax of the earth's orbit, we can only come to a knowledge of the extent of the arch which this motion would be seen to describe in a given time, when seen from a star of the first magnitude placed at right angles to the motion. There is, however, a considerable difference between the velocity of the solar motion and that of a star: for at a given distance, when the quantity of the solar motion is known, its velocity will also be known, and every approximation towards a knowledge of the distance of a star of the first magnitude will be an approximation towards the knowledge of the real solar velocity: but with a star it will be otherwise; for though the situation of the plane in which it moves is given, the angle of the direction of its motion with the visual ray will still remain unknown.

'As hitherto we have consulted only those proper motions which have a marked tendency to a parallactic centre, we ought now, when the question is to determine the velocity of the solar motion, to have in view the real motion of every star whose apparent motion we know; for as it would not be proper to assign a motion to the sun, either much greater or much less than any real motion which may be found to exist in some star or other, it follows that a general review of proper motions ought to be made before we can impartially fix on the solar velocity; but as trials with a number of stars would be attended with considerable inconvenience, I shall use only our former six in laying down the method that will be followed with all the rest.'

Neither the real nor the parallactic motion of a star can be ascertained till its relative distance be fixed: but what are the means of determining the relative distance? In strictness there are none; and therefore recourse is had to hypothesis. Dr. H. supposes that the relative distance of stars is proportional to their relative lustre; and on such supposition he puts down the proportional distances of

Sirius	1.00	Lyra	1.30
Arcturus	1.20	Aldebaran	1.40
Capella	1.25	Procyon	1.40

Since this is a mere hypothesis, any person is justified in withholding his consent from the conclusions that follow.

After having shewn towards what part of the heavens it is probable that the system is moving, Dr. H. turns his attention to the physical cause of the motion. He conjectures that it may arise from the attraction of large collections of stars discernible by his telescope in the heavens. He conjectures also that the solar system does not move towards those collections in a right line, but rather that round them, or round a point situated within them, the solar system may revolve as a planet revolves round the sun.

In

In the conclusion of his memoir, the Doctor says:

'I must now observe, that the result of calculations founded upon facts, such as we must admit the proper motions of the stars to be, should give us some useful information, either to satisfy the inquisitive mind, or to lead us on to new discoveries. The establishment of the solar motion answers both these ends. We have already seen that it resolves many difficulties relating to the proper motions of the stars, and reconciles apparent contradictions; but our inquiries should not terminate here. We are now in the possession of many concealed motions, and to bring them still more to light, and to add new ones by future observations should become the constant aim of every astronomer.

'This leads me to a subject, which though not new in itself, will henceforth assume a new and promising aspect. An elegant outline of it has long ago been laid before the public in a most valuable paper on general Gravitation, under the form of "Thoughts" on the subject; but I believe, from what has been said in this Paper, it will now be found that we are within the reach of a link of the chain which connects the principles of the solar and sidereal motions with those that are the cause of orbitual ones.

'A discovery of so many hitherto concealed motions, presents us with an interesting view of the construction of that part of the heavens which is immediately around us. The similarity of the directions of the sidereal motions is a strong indication that the stars, having such motions, as well as the sun, are acted upon by some connecting cause, which can only be attraction; and as it has been proved that attraction will not explain the observed phenomena without the existence of projectile motions, it must be allowed to be a necessary inference, that the motions of the stars we have examined are governed by the same two ruling principles which regulate the orbitual motions of the bodies of the solar system. It will also be admitted that we may justly invert the inference, and from the operation of these causes in our system, conclude that their influence upon the sidereal motions will tend to produce a similar effect; by which means the probable motion of the sun, and of the stars in orbits, becomes a subject that may receive the assistance of arguments supported by observation.

'What has been said in a paragraph of a former Paper, where the sun is placed among the insulated stars, does not contradict the present idea of its making one of a very extensive system. On the contrary, a connection of this nature has been alluded to in the same Paper. The insulation ascribed to the sun relates merely to a supposed binary combination with some neighbouring star; and it has now been proved by an example of Arcturus, that the solar motion cannot be occasioned or accounted for by a periodical revolution of the sun, and this or any other star about their common centre of gravity.'

The usual Meteorological Journal concludes this part of the volume. Part II. for the present year has just appeared.

R.W.

See p. 341.

ART.

ART. II. *An Enquiry into the System of National Defence in Great Britain.* By John Macdiarmid, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

WE are ever glad to behold matters of high national interest undergo discussion; since we are persuaded that, provided this investigation be carried on in a sober and temperate manner, it has a tendency to be productive of great public benefit. No small share of merit is also on other grounds, in our opinion, due to persons who thus employ themselves; we mean in a disinterested point of view, because the service rarely leads to profit, but is generally suffered to pass unrewarded if not unnoticed. Even if it has the good fortune to excite attention, and to produce practical advantage, the portion of the author is often no more than cold and affected praise, and oblivion soon overtakes his merits, however considerable they may have been. With critical notice and praise, however, let every just claimant be remunerated.

It is observed by Mr. Macdiarmid that frequently systems of national defence, while they have afforded security against the attempts of external violence, have, by encroaching inordinately on internal resources, accelerated and rendered unavoidable that ruin which they were intended to prevent. To discover the means of averting this fate from Great Britain, and to point out the way by which she may be made secure against external violence, without diminishing her internal prosperity, he states to be the object of the present work.

'With this view, the First Part is occupied in pointing out such circumstances as most distinctly mark the present state of the national prosperity, and of its tendency to advance; in giving a connected view of the principal obstructions to this prosperity which arise from the means employed for defence; and in examining how far these obstructions may be removed, or the prosperity of the nation enabled to advance without alterations in her present system of national defence.

'The Second Part of the work is employed in investigating what improvements may be introduced into our system of national defence, in such a manner as that the nation may at once be rendered more secure against external violence, and sustain less internal injury from the means by which this security is procured.'

A *coup d'œil* of the contents of the volumes will be obtained from contemplating the heads of the chapters.

'Vol. I. Part I. Of the Means by which Great Britain may be rendered secure without diminishing her Prosperity. Chap. I. Of the Prosperity of Great Britain. Chap. II. Of the Obstructions to the Prosperity of Great Britain arising from the Means employed for her Defence. Sect. 1. Influence of the System of Defence on Productive

ductive Industry, Wealth, and Population. Sect. 2. On Freedom, Patriotism, and Good Order. On Morals. Chap. III. Of the Means employed to remove these Obstructions. Chap. IV. Of alleviating the Public Burdens. Sect. 1. What Alleviations are Practicable. Sect. 2. Schemes to reduce the National Debt at once. Sect. 3. Of a Sinking Fund. Chap. V. Of Shortening the Period of War. Part II. Of Improving the System of National Defence. Introduction. Chap. I. Of Foreign Assistance. Sect. 1. Of the Necessity of Foreign Assistance to Great Britain. Sect. 2. Of Allies upon equal Terms. Sect. 3 Of Subsidised Allies. Sect. 4. Of Foreign Mercenaries. Chap. II. Of Augmenting the National Resources applicable to Defence. Sect. 1. Of the Extension of Territory. Sect. 2. Of increasing Intrinsic Resources. Chap. III. Of Rendering a People Warlike. Sect. 1. Expediency and Necessity of rendering a People Warlike. Sect. 2. Opinions concerning the Circumstances which render a People more or less Warlike. Sect. 3. Of the Qualities Essential to the Warlike Character of a People.

Vol. II. Part II. Chap. III. Sect. 4. Circumstances which render a People Intrepid. Sect. 5. Hardy. Sect 6. Patriotic. Sect. 7. Skilful and Dexterous in War. Chap. IV. Of a Standing Force. Sect. 1. Of the Necessity and Expediency of a Standing Force to Great Britain. Sect. 2. Of the Number of Troops requisite to form the Standing Force of Great Britain. Chap. V. Sect. 1. Of Levying a Standing Force. Sect. 2. Of Levying Officers. Sect. 3. Of Levying Privates. Chap. VI. Of Military Discipline and the Art of War. Chap. VII. Of Fortifications.'

The notion that wealth and vice go hand in hand, and that opulence inevitably leads to corruption, misery, and ruin, is represented by this author as a theory which can find votaries only among men of distempered fancies. The facts connected with the subject are ably stated, and the reasoning on them is close and fair. Our readers will form an idea of Mr. M.'s style and manner from a few specimens:

'No speculative reasoning with regard to the increasing immorality of the age, can overturn the opposing evidence of facts. Even after the authority of the government was confirmed and acknowledged in every quarter of the kingdom, we find that, in the reign of Henry VIII, a period of thirty six years, there were hanged in England, seventy two thousand rogues and thieves, besides other malefactors. The yearly number, therefore, of criminals of this description who were executed, amounted on an average, to about two thousand. In the firm and vigorous reign of Queen Elizabeth, between three and four hundred thieves and robbers suffered capital punishment every year. But in the present age, although the population of the kingdom is doubled, the average number of those annually executed over the whole of Great Britain for such crimes does not exceed fifty at most. During the year 1804, there were not twenty criminals of every description executed at the Old Bailey. Atrocious crimes of all kinds have diminished. Assassination and poisoning,

poisoning, crimes which argue a greater degree of depravity than any other, and which once were too common, are almost unheard of, and are spoken of with indignant horror.'—

'It is not indeed to be denied, that many vices exist, and many crimes are committed in every opulent nation. But although many have declaimed on the subject, no one has yet given any good reason to shew that an individual must necessarily be vicious because he is opulent; and if this cannot be done, no good reason can be given why a nation, which is merely a collection of individuals, should be vicious because it abounds in wealth. The circumstances which I have stated above afford a strong presumption that vice may be diminished as wealth increases.'—

'To those who can at all separate private and public virtue from religion, it may be necessary to add, that the influence of christianity is every day becoming more apparent. The religion of Christ is no longer considered as an engine of state, by which the minds of men may be held in bondage. It no longer appears a collection of tenets which no one can understand, or of ceremonies and observances of which no one can shew the meaning or use. Its truth becomes every day more apparent, as mankind discover more distinctly that its precepts exactly correspond with the dictates of an enlightened reason. It is found to be the religion fitted for man: the religion of active exertion, which teaches true virtue to consist in the unremitting practice of our duties, in the different situations of life. Without mentioning the visible improvements in social intercourse, evidently flowing from this cause; the numberless institutions supported by private contributions, for the education of the young and helpless, and for the relief of the distressed and the aged, in which Great Britain far surpasses every other country, and which are every day increasing in number, afford a sufficient proof of the progress which the nation is making in practical religion, in the worship of God in Spirit and in Truth.

'I have now recounted a few obvious circumstances, which seem to indicate a strong tendency in our national prosperity to advance; and which appear to justify the following conclusions:

'Our productive industry exhibits the strongest marks of increasing vigour and activity.

'By its exertions the means of subsistence continue to increase, and the population, which necessarily multiplies in proportion.

'The soil of Great Britain affords the means of multiplying its population and productive industry many fold.

'As productive industry is the great and never failing source of wealth, the wealth of Great Britain must necessarily be permanent and continue to increase, while that industry acts and has the means of employing itself.

'Great Britain excels every other nation, and continues daily to improve, in private virtue of every kind, in freedom, patriotism, good order, and religion.

'However contrary the conclusion may be to the complaints, reproaches, and despondent forebodings which are daily spread through the nation; men of plain sense and unprejudiced minds will not

not scruple to allow, that a nation, where such circumstances exist, must both be extremely prosperous, and have a strong tendency to advance in prosperity. While these circumstances are allowed to have their free action, no argument can be adduced either from reason or experience, to shew that a nation may stop short in her prosperity, or sink into decay.'

Mr. Macdiarmid manifests equal ability in his statement of the obstructions to the general prosperity arising from our system of national defence. He thus sums up his observations under this head, when speaking of this country in her present circumstances:

'It appears that a large number of her most vigorous subjects are withdrawn from her productive industry; that a large quantity of her annual produce is taken from maintaining productive labourers, and consumed in maintaining those who are unproductive: that the capital destined for the maintenance of productive industry is by this means diminished; that the number of labourers who might have been maintained by this capital is therefore lost to her productive industry: that the wealth of the nation is in consequence less by perhaps one-half at the end of the century than it otherwise would have been, and that the population is less in proportion.

'It appears that the freedom of the nation is endangered by the depression of spirit which necessarily follows the enormity of taxation; by a peculiarly vexatious mode of collecting certain taxes; by the vast addition of patronage which is thrown into the hands of the crown; by the great body of armed men continually at the disposal of government; by the introduction into our army of a number of foreign adventurers; by the large portion of her citizens who are taken out of the protection of the civil and placed under the jurisdiction of martial law: and that every encroachment on her freedom tends to destroy the good order, and extinguish the patriotism of her inhabitants.

'It appears that the morals of the nation are in danger of being corrupted by the relaxation of its industry, by the diminution of its freedom, and by too great temptations to violate good faith.

'That these circumstances are sufficient to obstruct, to diminish, and, if not remedied, to ruin the prosperity of a nation, will scarcely be disputed by those who observe the course of human affairs, instead of betaking themselves to frame paradoxes.'

We regret that we have not space even to abridge the writer's important observations on our financial difficulties, or to select any of them for the contemplation of our readers.

The following is his description of the relative situation of our empire at home:

'The population of Great Britain and Ireland, which now together form the seat of empire, amounts to about sixteen millions, and the male population capable of bearing arms to between four and five millions. France, Austria, and Russia, are the only European

countries which are supposed to possess a greater population. The inhabitants of Russia are scattered over a tract of country nearly equal in extent to all the rest of Europe besides. The people are as yet scarcely initiated in the arts of civilized life. The want of internal commerce, and the miserable state of the greater part of the inhabitants, render the utmost revenues of the government little more than adequate to its peace establishment. Civilization being as yet in its infancy, and the government being a despotism, the greater part of the forces it can maintain is necessary to preserve order among its own subjects. Russia, in her present state, could not afford to raise, equip, and maintain for any considerable time, a hundred thousand, or perhaps even fifty thousand men, at a distance from her own frontiers. Austria is possessed of many fine countries and a numerous population. But her territories are disjointed, her different provinces have little feeling of a common interest, her commerce is very limited, and her government is arbitrary. In consequence of these circumstances, the revenues of Austria, and the efforts she is able to make in war, are by no means proportionate to her size. During the last war Great Britain supplied her with money to defend her own territories. No one imagines that Austria is in any degree formidable to Great Britain. France then is the only nation that can be supposed to endanger her security. The population of France is supposed to exceed that of Great Britain and Ireland, by about eight or nine millions. The conquered countries contain about seven millions more. But instead of rendering France more capable of invading her neighbours, these countries, at least at present, rather serve to bind up her hands. A considerable portion of her native troops is employed in overawing them ; and the supplies already extorted from them for the maintenance of the French troops, have nearly driven a part of them to that state of desperation which renders a people most dangerous. Even amidst the convulsions of the late revolution, when the minds of the whole people were unsettled, when every motive of hope and fear was employed to recruit the armies, when the national treasury was replenished by the forced resources of confiscation and plunder ; it does not appear that all the troops which France maintained, on her own territories and on those of her enemies, ever amounted at any one time to a million. But the efforts which France made during the ferment of a revolution, and in her own defence, are very different from what she can make in ordinary times and for the invasion of an enemy. Her revenue is much inferior to that of Great Britain ; nor does it appear that in the present state of her internal wealth, the public burdens can be much augmented. Her resources for maintaining the present war have in part been derived from Spain, Portugal, Holland, and Germany. Her government is again arbitrary, and must be maintained by a considerable internal force. The want of other means obliges her to recruit her armies by compulsion ; and the government, for its own safety, must forbear as much as possible to increase the resentment which has already been excited, and which must ever be excited by such violent encroachments on the rights of individuals. France has besides, by her late successes and conquests, rendered herself

herself obnoxious to all her neighbours; and she cannot expect that, on any reverse of fortune, those alliances, which the fear of her arms has formed and hitherto maintained, will remain unbroken. Her extensive frontiers must always be protected by a powerful force. In such circumstances, if France detaches two or even one hundred thousand men for the invasion of Great Britain, it will be an exertion very dangerous to her own security.'

In the same laudable strain, the author treats the heads of foreign assistance, foreign alliances, and foreign subsidies. We insert the summary of his sentiments on these important subjects:

'The internal resources of Great Britain are to be considered as completely sufficient for her defence, not only in the present arrangement of society, but in any arrangement which it is possible for us to foresee. There can therefore exist no necessity whatever for employing foreign assistance in our system of defence.

'It has appeared that allies upon equal terms are in general to be very little depended upon; that in the present situation of Great Britain in particular no trust can be reposed either in the duration of such alliances, or in their increasing our national security while they last.

'It has appeared that the assistance of subsidised allies is as little to be depended upon, and still less likely to be efficacious. Their defection may be more dangerous; and the money thus employed may be considered as worse than thrown away.

'It has appeared that the introduction of foreign mercenaries into the military establishment is a measure pregnant with the most mischievous consequences; that they are in danger of undermining and finally destroying the liberty of the natives, and that no trust can be reposed in their fidelity against a foreign enemy. It has appeared that native troops will serve all the same purposes with much better effect; that they can be procured at less expence; and that foreign mercenaries are in every respect a source of weakness rather than of strength to the nation.

'From these observations, then, it may be concluded that foreign assistance of every description may without detriment be entirely relinquished in our system of national defence. Whatever obstructions arise from this cause to the prosperity of Great Britain, whether from the waste of her wealth, the dangers to her freedom, or the other circumstances allied to them, may thus be removed without rendering the nation less secure.'

The mischievous consequences, of various kinds, which are attendant on national bankruptcy, are here forcibly displayed. Our reason and our feelings are engaged on the side of good faith; and the impolicy as well as the disgrace of violating it are set before us in the strongest light:—but, ignominious and pernicious as Mr. Macdiarmid justly represents such a catastrophe to be, he is clearly of opinion that, on our present sys-

tem, it must at no very distant period overtake us. It is not in declamation that he deals while treating this subject, but rather, we fear, in something that approaches very nearly to demonstration. His reasoning is certainly calculated to rouse our public men; who, it must be owned, have been thrown on most difficult times, and have an arduous part to perform.

We do not see that the policy of our colonial system, and of our navigation acts, has any immediate connection with the subjects which the author brings under discussion. Many important observations on the former of these topics occur in a very ill-digested performance, which we have lately had occasion to notice *: but the views here given of it are partial and contracted. Our navigation code is treated with great perspicuity and felicity, but the investigations are in our judgment rather out of place in the present work.

The author's plans for rendering the nation warlike, (which occupy most of the second volume), if they be not profound, display a respectable knowlege of human nature, and human manners and affairs; while those which he proposes for our defence are, we suspect, more ingenious and plausible than just and solid: but, if the statesman will decline the schemes which are here submitted to his consideration, he will meet with various hints and suggestions which it will not be wise in him to disregard. Most of the councils here given are excellent, but many of them have the misfortune of coming too late: though we fear that, had they been interposed earlier, they would not have met with a better fate than they experienced when proceeding from the mouths or pens of others. On the subject of Military Discipline, Mr. M. coincides much with and quotes often from Brig. Gen. Stewart's and Sir R. Wilson's late pamphlets; especially in reprobating our practice of military floggings. To fortifications he is wholly adverse.

To conclude: the present writer is a zealous and a grave, but neither a gloomy nor an illiberal monitor. His intentions are of the most pure and honourable kind; and his services intitle him, in our estimation, to the acknowlegements of all good subjects and lovers of their country.

Mr. Macdiarmid has also published a work on *the Principles of Civil and Military Subordination*, which will be the subject of our future notice. Jo.

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* Brougham on Colonial Policy, Rev. Vol. I. N. S. p. 1.

ART. III. *Practical Observations concerning Sea Bathing:* to which are added, Remarks on the Use of the Warm Bath. By A. P. Buchan, M. D. of the Royal College of Physicians, London. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE indiscriminate manner in which sea-bathing is practised, by persons of all ages and constitutions, must in many instances prove injurious. As in some states of the body it is capable of producing the most beneficial effects, it is obvious that, in the opposite conditions, it must be hurtful; and yet such is the present current of fashion, that an annual migration to the sea-coast is regarded not only as a means of preserving the health against all impending ills, but also as the method of removing every complaint to which the human frame is liable. A work therefore like that before us, the object of which is to point out those states of the body in which sea-bathing is more particularly indicated, and those in which its use might be followed by any injurious consequences, is of unquestionable importance.

Dr. Buchan commences by some 'general observations on cold bathing', in which he first describes the effects produced on the body by the shock of a sudden immersion in the sea, and afterward by a longer continuance in the same medium. One of the most obvious, and at the same time the least pleasant of its effects is that which is produced on the respiration, which is rendered short and convulsive. Different opinions have been offered to account for this circumstance: but Dr. B. conceives that it depends on a degree of torpor being induced by the external cold on the cutaneous vessels, with these the vessels of the lungs sympathize, and hence it becomes necessary to use a voluntary exertion of the respiratory muscles in order to overcome the difficulty arising from an obstructed circulation through them.

Considering how much attention has been paid to the effects of temperature on the body, it is remarkable that we should be still in doubt respecting the operation of the cold-bath on the circulation. Dr. Currie, in his experiments, found the number of pulsations to be diminished, while the present author has observed the action of the arteries to be accelerated, and it appears that other experimentalists have met with the same result. Probably this seeming contradiction may be attributed to the circumstance of these gentlemen having directed their attention almost exclusively to the *velocity* of the pulse, considering this as the sole criterion of the force of the circulation.

We have next some remarks on the glow of heat which generally succeeds immersion in the cold bath; and which is

justly regarded as a proof that its operation on the system is favourable. It appears to be unattended with any absolute increase in the heat of the body, and to depend altogether on the surface becoming more sensible to the usual temperature of the atmosphere, after it has been exposed to a comparative degree of cold.—Perhaps the most important advantage, that is to be sought from the employment of sea-bathing, is that it may enable the body to bear a more extensive range of temperature, without experiencing any of those bad effects which follow from the sudden variations in the weather that so frequently occur in this climate. The evils of our changeable atmosphere are much augmented by the habit, which is now so generally adopted, (particularly by females,) of employing a thin covering of dress, and excluding most carefully the access of cold air from their overheated apartments. Our moist and variable climate should be counteracted by cool rooms and warm clothing.

Dr. Buchan next proceeds to offer a number of judicious observations on the time and manner of bathing. He objects to the prevailing custom of plunging into the sea early in a morning, while the atmosphere is cold, and the body enfeebled by the nocturnal perspiration.

'I have frequently been shocked (he says) at seeing delicate invalids of both sexes, apparently just risen, and before the vital functions had resumed their proper energy, standing pale and shivering on the bleak beach, or waiting in a bathing room chilled by streams of cold air rushing through opposite doors and windows, and expecting, apparently with a degree of horror, their turn to go into the water. From bathing in this state of the body, no possible advantage can be derived.'

Two chapters of this work are devoted to the consideration, first of those complaints for which sea-bathing is beneficial, and afterward of those in which it is found to be injurious. In general, it is in chronic diseases that its good effects are the most obvious; and among these, in none is it found to be more serviceable than in the different forms of scrophula. Repeated experience has also decidedly marked its good effects in chorea, hypochondriasis, hysteria, and in the latter stages of chincough; while it is to be entirely avoided in inflammatory affections of the viscera, and, according to the opinion of our author, in many of the cutaneous affections.

The volume concludes with some observations on the use of the warm bath, which Dr. Buchan regards as, in many cases, a salutary application; and he attempts, as had been previously done by Darwin and Currie, to controvert the general prejudice entertained against it in consequence of its *supposed* relaxing effects. This idea appears to have arisen from the excess to which the

the practice was carried in the earlier periods of the Roman empire, when the temperature of the baths was raised to an excessive degree, and other customs were adopted of the most debilitating nature. The example, however, of the Romans during the period of their republic, and that of some of the northern nations of Europe at this day, afford abundant evidence of the safety of warm-bathing. We agree with Dr. B. in thinking that the moderate use of the tepid bath will be found serviceable in retarding the approaches of old age, in different states of chronic weakness, in several cutaneous diseases, and more especially in obviating the effects of severe fatigue.

Bos.

ART. IV. *An Epitome of the Natural History of the Insects of New Holland, New Zealand, New Guinea, Otaheite, and other Islands in the Indian, Southern, and Pacific Oceans:* including the Figures and Descriptions of one hundred and fifty-three Species of the more splendid, beautiful, and interesting Insects, hitherto discovered in those Countries, and which for the most part have not appeared in the Works of any preceding author. The Figures are correctly delineated from Specimens of the Insects; and with the Descriptions are arranged according to the Linnæan System, with Reference to the Writings of Fabricius and other Entomologists. By E. Donovan, F.L.S., Author of the Natural Histories of the Insects of China, India, &c. 4to. Six Guineas. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

IT may be proper to remind the reader that Mr. Donovan, some years ago, published a volume on the entomology of China, which was succeeded by another on the insects of India and of the islands in the contiguous seas. The present is intended as the third of a series, completing a general epitome of the insects of Asia, and forming, with the two preceding, the first part of an extensive work intitled *General Illustrations of Entomology.*

Most of the animal and vegetable productions of Australasia have a peculiar physiognomy, which it is not easy to define, but which is readily recognized by the discriminating observer. The present ingenious and indefatigable zoologist appears to have bestowed his accustomed pains and accuracy, in the delineation of that portion of them which his design embraced. His figures are eminently distinguished by the richness and brilliancy of the colouring, by elegance of the forms, and appropriate varieties of attitude. Should the number of species described be reckoned somewhat limited, and many of the descriptions be regarded as dry and scanty, let it not be forgotten that the work is a professed epitome, and that the remote

regions named in the title-page have as yet been very imperfectly explored by the eyes of the naturalist. Some important circumstances, however, have contributed to enhance the present publication. The Banksian cabinet, it is well known, is comparatively rich in Australasian entomology; and to this cabinet the author had unreserved access. In mentioning his own collection, Mr. Donovan informs us that,

'Besides a number of those species found in the vicinity of our settlement in New South Wales, he has been long possessed of a select number of scarce insects collected by Mr. Bailey, the astronomer, who sailed in one of the expeditions with Captain Cook; and since the death of the late Mr. Drury, he has further enriched his cabinet with many others discovered in New Holland, and adjacent islands, at the time they were visited by Sir Joseph Banks.

'The author has also farther to acknowledge the benefit he has derived from inspecting two other cabinets of celebrity in this country, without the assistance of which the present illustration would have been far less copious and interesting, than it is at this time: these are the cabinet of Mr. Francillon, and that of A Macleay, Esq. to both of whom he begs leave to express his warmest thanks for this testimony of their friendship.'

The species here described are, one of *Melolontha*, *Cerapterus*, *Brentus*, *Lixus*, *Rhynchænus*, *Tettigonia*, and *Geometra*; two of *Lucanus*, *Cerambix*, *Saperda*, *Lamia*, *Fulgora*, *Sphinx*, *Musca*, and *Tabanus*; three of *Erotylus*, *Prionus*, *Clytus*, *Stenocorus*, *Tortrix*, *Tinea*, and *Thynnus*; four of *Curculio*, and *Cossus*; five of *Cetonia*; seven of *Chrysomela*, *Cicada*, *Cimex*, and *Noctua*; ten of *Buprestis*; twelve of *Bombyx*; and forty-six of *Papilio*.

From the non-descripts, we select the account of

'CERAPTERUS MACLEAII.

Generic Character.

'Antennæ compressed, pinnated, with the first joint concave, and placed transversely, and that at the extremity large, and rounded at the apex: head very small, with the eyes prominent: thorax flat, somewhat heart shaped, truncated, and narrower than the elytra: wing cases length of the abdomen, and embracing it at the sides: body oblong.

'*Specific Character.*

Entirely brown, with the legs simple.

Cerapterus Macleaii; totus brunneus, pedibus simplicibus.

'A non-descript species of this singular genus has been received by our kind friend Mr. Francillon from New Holland. This is a diminutive but most curious creature, and is especially remarkable for the structure of the antennæ, which latter appear to considerable advantage under the lens of the opake microscope.

'In its general habit, this insect approaches the Pausus genus; with which the juvenile Entomologist, attentive only to the magnitude

tude and club-like form of the antennæ, might easily confound it. The difference between those (*these*) insects is, indeed, obvious on more close inspection; the Pausus having only two joints in the antennæ, of which that at the extremity is by far the largest; while the antennæ of the true Cerapterus are furnished with several joints, all which are of a compressed form, pinnated, and terminated at both extremities with one larger than the rest.

'The genus Cerapterus is described by Swederus, in the Transactions of the Swedish Academy for the year 1788, but does not appear to have been noticed by any other author. The description given by Swederus is taken from an insect which he names *Cerapterus Latipes*, in the collection of General Davies of Blackheath, and which he states to be a native of Honduras, but erroneously, as we are assured that gentleman obtained the insect Swederus mentions from Bengal. Another species of Cerapterus was lately brought from the same country by Mr. Fichtel, who consigned it to the Imperial Cabinet at Vienna. Our Australasian insect, therefore, appears to be the third species of this genus at present known, and being perfectly undescribed, we beg leave to name it in compliment to our good friend A. M'Leay, Esq. S.L.S.'

Much remains to be known with respect to the habitudes of most of the little creatures which pass under the author's review: but he has at least the merit of preparing the way for farther elucidation and inquiry, and of contributing an elegant and important accession to the library of the entomologist. Muir.

ART. V. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture;* on Subjects relative to Husbandry, and internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. IV. 4to. pp. 446. 18s. Boards. Nicol. 1805.

BY the very nature of its establishment, the Board of Agriculture acquires a pre-eminence over our other agricultural societies; and, considered as an appendage of government, its influence must be extensive. It is therefore not in the least surprizing that, on a question of great national importance, proposed by this Board to the public at large, in consequence of a requisition from the House of Lords, between three and four hundred Essays should have been transmitted; especially if we recollect that our farmers are not now mere *terræ filii*, but that many of them pursue husbandry animated with a love of science as well as with a love of gain. Indeed, the former, if not always necessary to insure our success in the latter, promises to afford the most steady and effectual assistance. Particular circumstances may defeat the plans and provisions of science: but generally (or *in the long run* as the country people say,) the principles of true philosophy, reduced to practice, will be profitable to man. For this reason, we not only take

pleasure

pleasure in observing the diffusion of knowlege among our agriculturists, but are ready on all occasions to concur with any measures which promise its extention. We are pleased, for instance, to see the farmer now instructed to appreciate the qualities of different soils by the application of chemical tests, and to supersede the vague conjectures of ignorance by real knowlege. It is not, however, so easy as some persons would imagine, to lay down general rules. Experiment must be added to experiment, result must be compared with result, and the communications of intelligent practitioners in one country or district must be perused in conjunction with those who are situated in various others, before any thing like decision should be hazarded.

On this principle the Board of Agriculture proceeded, when they offered premiums, by public advertisements addressed to every part of the kingdom, for Essays on "*the best Method of converting Grass-Lands into Tillage, and, after a certain Time, of restoring them to Grass again, with Improvement, or at least without Injury;*" and though the orthodox doctrine on this subject has been ascertained with tolerable certainty by the Essays already published, the Board was not willing that the community should lose all the Hints that were scattered in those prize Essays, which it would now be unnecessary to print at length. From these, therefore, extracts or selections are made, which constitute the first part of the volume now before us. The arrangement is under the following heads:—On certain Soils and the Cultivation;—Draining;—Paring and Burning;—Manuring;—Fallowing;—Operations of Tillage;—Courses of Crops;—Culture of the Crops introduced on breaking up Grass Land;—Grasses;—Feeding or Mowing;—Live Stock;—Rent;—Grazing and Tillage compared;—Various Subjects. As the papers are in number *one hundred and seventy-seven*, it is impossible for us to specify them all. We must speak chiefly of general results, and dwell only on select particulars.

Some of the processes detailed under the first head merit preservation, and are worthy of being consulted by practical men. One farmer gives, for instance, an account of a method by which he made a portion of land of 93 acres, now let at 22l. 10s., worth at least 100l. per annum. This is improving.—Of the advantages of Paring and Burning, the opinion is becoming very unanimous. We are presented with extracts from a long list of papers relative to this subject, in which the practice is strongly recommended, and the objections to it are obviated. It is remarked by one correspondent, who occupies a farm consisting of *a clay and chalk* soil; (viz. Mr. Morris Birkbeck of Warnborough near Guildford)

'By paring and burning, that portion of the turf which contains from three fourths to four-fifths of the undecayed fibres is at once converted into a substance the most favourable to vegetation; and the spongy quality is completely corrected, whilst not more than two inches in depth need be disturbed: thus securing in an effectual manner the best preparation for grain, and the means of the restoration of the turf.

'Objections lie against this practice, from the supposed waste of vegetable matter; and some persons alledge that the soil itself suffers diminution.

'The latter opinion is not entertained by those who are aware of the refractory nature of earths in general; and the former will probably lose much of its weight, when it is considered, that the fixed principles of plants which are the result of combustion, carbon, phosphate of lime, and fixed alkali, are speedily converted into vegetable nutriment: and that it is only by combustion, or a slower decomposition, which also suffers the volatile parts to exhale, that this change in the vegetable fibre can be effected: therefore the competition in bulk, supposing that the criterion, is not between the ashes of burnt vegetables, and the vegetables in a perfect state, but between the ashes, and the result of this slow decomposition, when as nearly approaching to vegetable nutriment. A great reduction takes place even in rotten dung, before it is fitted to enter the vessels of plants; and in the comparison, the value of the time saved should be thrown into the scale. That something is lost by this process, to the particular field, the volumes of smoke which are seen rolling over the hedges plainly testify; but as this is principally water, coloured by a small portion of oil, it is probably of less importance than the carbon which escapes in gas, when the combustion is complete. The same effects are also produced by fermentation.'

Another writer (Mr. William Wright of Ranby, near Retford) speaks thus of the practice on *thin lime-stone* land:

'I am sorry to hear of the objections of many to paring and burning, under the idea that it diminishes the best soil, which by a frequent repetition, would eventually impair its natural fertility. Plausible as this may appear at first sight, I conceive it is not founded in fact; on the indefinite term of "frequent," I shall only observe, that this practice is neither necessary nor profitable upon land recently laid down, but upon swarth of ten or fifteen, and upon some lands of twenty years standing, the surface will be so thickly matted with vegetables, that on separating the soil from the pared sod, the soil so taken will be found in quantity very small indeed; and I may venture to assert, will be more than restored by the returning ashes of the whole. To corroborate this opinion, I will state the practice of a friend of mine, and his father before him, and of others before them, for near a century past; the estate is their own freehold, and has been in the family for several generations. It is thin lime-stone land, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. They have constantly taken up their swarth by paring and burning, after laying about ten years. The soil is so thin in some places, that the ploughshare scalps the rock, yet no diminution of soil is in the least discovered.'

Under

Under the head of manuring, the operation of fire on land is farther evinced by a paper on *burning stubble*, by Mr. William Curtis of Lynn:

'In a former period of my life, I occupied, under a grandfather, a farm of nine hundred acres of land, with as great diversity of soil as is, I believe, to be found in the same compass, in any part of the kingdom. During this occupation, I made many experiments of renovating old pasture land by tillage, and afterwards returning it to its original state. Amidst a variety of these essays, the following appeared to me the most worthy of imitation: I recollect breaking up two pieces of old pasture land, of an exact similitude of soil and aspect. The first piece I ploughed with a common Norfolk plough in the beginning of March, with furrows of about four inches depth. I then harrowed in, broad-cast, four bushels of oats per acre, rolling the land with a very heavy roller, as soon as the soil was sufficiently dry to permit the operation. The crop proved abundant; nine quarters per acre came to the bushel, exclusive of a very great loss which was scattered in the field: the oats were shorn, leaving the stubble about eighteen inches high. The first fine day after the oats were carried off, I took the advantage of a fair wind, and by the help of a candle and lantern, I so completely set fire to the standing stubble, as to consume every particle of it that appeared upon the surface; but previously to my so doing, I used the precaution of mowing the verges of it to prevent any injury being sustained by the surrounding hedges. This operation completely destroyed every weed and seed that grew, leaving the surface entirely covered with ashes. As soon as harvest was finished, I ploughed the land of a depth just sufficiently to conceal the ashes, and about a fortnight afterwards, I ploughed it again two inches deeper than before. By this variation in ploughing, the ashes became completely intermixed amongst that portion of the soil designed for vegetation. In the month of November I sowed it, broad-cast, with three bushels of wheat per acre, which I ploughed in furrows of about four to a yard, and at a pitch rather less than that at which it was at first broken up. This crop, like the last, proved extremely advantageous; its produce being full five quarters per acre.'

An essay without a name recommends the use of dung from the stable as soon as made: but this practice must be liable to serious objections, especially in many cases. The reason against manuring in frosty weather, given in another paper, is certainly well founded; yet it must be recollected that, when the earth is locked up by the frost, the team has often nothing else to do. A sweeping declamation, also anonymous, is offered against *summer fallowing*, in which we are told that 'winter and summer to land is the same as day and night to man:' but, though fallowing has been injudiciously pursued, and recourse has been had to it in cases in which it was not necessary, so that a loss has been sustained which might have been avoided, yet there are circumstances under which it may be expedient; and it is no argument to tell us that 'meadows,

coppices, and hedge-rows, produce crops year after year for ever.'

We have often observed, with concern, the little pains taken by farmers to secure their shocks of corn from the effects of rain, when standing in the field. Heavy showers, in time of harvest, are not unusual; and much injury is often caused by them, and much trouble occasioned by opening the sheaves. The hint suggested, therefore, in the following short extract, on the use of cap sheaves, we would recommend to general attention; particularly as it will enable the farmer, without fear, to give his crop field-room, and prevent his hurrying it, before it is thoroughly dry, into the barn or stack:

'HARVEST.—*By Mr. William Elmhurst, near Horncastle.*

'I like to have my wheats cut rather green, not to stand till ripe, so as to shake; and I always have mine bound in smallish sheaves, set eight only together; four of the largest, two against two, and the two smallest at the ends, so that they prop and support each other; and the two longest tied ones, opened well and drawn up close to each other, over the other six; and by so doing, I scarcely ever have a stack blown down even with a very strong wind; the two cap sheaves must be tied together by twisting, and a little of the but ends of the sheaves (on both sides) together; and when that is done, and the cap sheaves spread nicely over the other six, neither wind nor rain will hurt the wheat, if it stands out for three, four, or five weeks, being so well covered below the ties: for no one practical failing, in a farmer, is greater, or more ridiculous and injurious, than carrying his crops, of any sort, too hastily; as there is ten times more corn injured by being in too great a hurry, than by its stopping too long in the field; and when wheats are cut rather green and covered, as above, the straw will feed the corn, and make the flour better and finer.'

A report on the utility and consumption of Winter Tares, by Mr. Malcolm of Stockwell Place, is worthy of preservation:

'In the month of May, tares will, in ordinary seasons, be fit to be fed off. Sheep should be folded on them, the manner of doing which is not generally known, and if known, is so very seldom practised, that I scarcely ever saw above two or three instances, where any thing like a prudent plan was adopted. I may therefore be excused the liberty of entering more into a detail on that subject. The month of May is a period of great and natural anxiety with the flock as well as stock farmer; he finds in this month very great difficulty to procure the necessary food to keep on his flock after turnips; and he either has recourse to some common, if near at hand, which by the bye is only keeping them alive, or else he must give up some of his best pasture or meadow for their use. But if he be provided with a good succession of tares, he hurdles off a certain portion of them, and turns his flock into that part so hurdled off.

These

These animals, with stomachs as voracious as possible, rush into the field, and instead of eating up the tares clean and all before them, trample and destroy more than they eat; it is just the same with clover, instead of which let a certain portion be cut across the field, as far as occasion may require, and you have hurdles and stock for the purpose. This first allotment should be mown, and carried clear off the field; either into a nice well littered yard, apart from the neat cattle, and put into low racks; these racks to be moved about the yard at every replenishing; and which, by the immense quantity of urine provoked by the tares, they will nearly saturate the yard. I prefer this mode to feeding them in a close; because dung, at any distance from a large town, is an article of so much value. A portion of the tares may be given *de die in diem* to the neat cattle and cart horses in the yard. After a sufficient space of ground is cleared, the shepherd must cut some fresh tares, which he will place in racks, and distribute over the ground that was first cut; moving the hurdles forward as often as necessary, until the whole field is fed off, and dressed alike. Between Morton on the Wold and Tewksbury in Gloucestershire, I have observed them using a hurdle, or what is more generally called a wattle, made of oak, leaving out the middle rail, for the purpose of dividing off the land, and enabling the sheep to put their heads through and feeding themselves. In order to keep the sheep separate and at the same time to give strength to the wattles, a certain number of upright laths are placed at equal distances, sometimes four, in others five, and these are well secured by pins to the cross rails. I do not however altogether approve this scheme; for in the eagerness with which sheep feed, and as by this mode the whole force, if not weight, of the animal is opposed to the hurdle or wattle, it is not an unusal thing to see them drop, and remain unable to move for a long time. These wattles also are very expensive, being at some places as high as six shillings each; the former mode has the advantage. If from the heat and dryness of the weather the tares cannot be fed off fast enough, that is before the blossoms begin to decay, they had better be mown and made into hay, which if well managed will produce the sweetest and most nutritious of any in the farm. I have grown from two to two tons and a half on an acre; and sometimes more upon a smaller scale; and when cattle break into the rick yard, I have always found them leave good clover, meadow, or trefoil, hay, untouched, and feed upon the tare hay; a proof, this, beyond all the arguments or treatises in the world. In fattening off old ewes and weathers, and in improving of lean neat cattle, I know of no sort of provender so valuable.'

One paper occurs on the culture of Hemp; which, though that subject was not included in the inquiries of the Board, it has been thought proper to insert. It is written by Mr. John White of Wykeham, who truly represents the growth of this article as an useful branch of agriculture, which is greatly on the decline. As the communication is short, we shall transcribe it:

'In

'In my neighbourhood, great quantities of hemp and flax used to be grown, but their culture is now dwindled to a mere nothing. A few weeks back I was conversing on the subject of hemp and flax with a neighbour of mine, who two or three years ago was a considerable grower of those articles; and respecting the decline of their cultivation, I soon found that we were both of one opinion. His observation was, that in this neighbourhood so little land is allowed to be ploughed, and the price of corn is at the same time so exceedingly high, that people, especially the little farmers, who are not allowed to plough but a few acres, were obliged to cultivate their hemp-lands with corn for their domestic uses, the price being so exorbitant, that if a man did not grow it himself, he could not afford to buy it. The decline in this article (hemp) in my memory, and within these last thirty years, has been wonderful indeed; and it is but a very few days ago that I heard a very respectable man who is a rope-maker, say, that since the misunderstanding with the Court of Petersburgh had taken place, he did not know how to procure hemp at any price to carry on his trade; and I declare that within these last twenty years, I have seen as capital good hemp sold in ——— market at three shillings per stone, as I this day saw sold in the same place at eleven shillings and sixpence. If the growth of hemp and flax are of any serious consequences to this country, as I think it must, then some immediate and effectual methods must be adopted for the restoration of it. The bounty which was formerly granted, of threepence and fourpence per stone upon the growth of it, though in fact very irregularly paid, would not be sufficient at this day to act as any kind of stimulation to the grower. It is not my business here to propose any plan to restore the cultivation of hemp and flax, though I am persuaded it may be done.'

Among the essays on Grasses, we find one in which the *plantago lanceolata*, or pointed leaved plantain, is reprobated as a pernicious weed which it is surprising that any man should attempt to cultivate. In another, the Carraway plant is recommended as beneficial to sheep, and suited to all strong soils.

Whether fields recently laid down to grass should be first fed, or mowed, is a point on which agricultural doctors are not agreed. The opinions here advanced militate with each other.

We have been compelled to pass over numerous particulars in the first part of this volume, which consists of 143 articles; and we must take our leave of it by noticing the last paper, which dissuades from the use of Thatch on farm-houses and offices, on the ground of its robbing the dung-hill. Where cheap covering can be obtained, this hint should not be disregarded. On men of property, in particular, it should not be lost.

The second part is intitled *Miscellaneous Papers*. The first is Lord Carrington's Speech, delivered at the Board, on quitting

quitting the Chair, March 15, 1803; in which he justifies the conduct of the Board during his presidency, and adverts with proper spirit to some unhandsome and groundless insinuations which were thrown out against it, in consequence of the measures which it pursued to obtain a general inclosure act, the want of which is a great obstacle to the internal improvement of the country. Lord C. explains the domestic concerns of the Board, and notices the impartiality with which the premiums were adjudged. This speech is intitled to the praise which it received.

No. 2. is an Essay on the Management of Forests, by M. Pannelier D'Annel, printed at the King's Printing Office in Paris, in 1784, and translated from the French original, by Sir John Talbot Dillon, Knt., Under Secretary to the Board of Agriculture. The object of this paper is to reprobate the practice of suffering forest trees to grow in masses, without proper thinning, to a great age; and to lay down rules for the regular felling of timber.

Three papers next occur, each claiming premiums offered for Irrigation. Plans of the lands irrigated are annexed. In one instance, (that of the Rev. R. B. Clough of Eriviatt, near Denbigh, North Wales) a very considerable improvement of a farm was effected, as must be evident on a mere inspection of the maps representing its original and present state.

No. 6. consists of a list of seeds from Sumatra, &c. sent by Dr. Campbell, of Fort Marlbro', to Lord Carrington, for the purpose of being forwarded to our West India Islands, as additions to their vegetable productions; and a few, which are remarkable more for their beauty than their utility, are directed to be conveyed to Mr. Aiton, his Majesty's Botanical Superintendant at Kew. It is pleasing to observe the efforts that are made by philosophical men, to extend the blessings of Providence; and it is reasonable to hope that such endeavours, as those of Dr. C. and others, will be crowned with success. The reader will perceive by the following article, which we shall transcribe, that the valuable Teak-tree is already become an inhabitant of the West Indies:

'*On the Introduction of the Teak Tree into Barbadoes.*—*By* NATH. LUCAS, *Esq. of Lynxford Hall, Norfolk.*

Tektona grandis, Linn. *Suppl.* p. 151.
Hort. Malabar, IV. 57. Tab. XXVII.

'In May or June 1799, being in Barbadoes, I received sundry East India seeds from Langford Millington, Esq. a Member of this Board, requesting me, by desire of the Board, to distribute them in the Island. No time was lost in so doing: but not a single seed of any

any kind vegetated, except one of the teak wood; and that was at Sunbury, an estate belonging to John Henry Barrow, Esq. of Hill Park, in the county of Kent.

'The soil in which this single seed vegetated is a very rich black mould, upon white clay, in the orchard, north of the dwelling house.

'Being again in the Island in July, 1803, I visited the tree, in company with Mr. Barrow, and was astonished to see what progress it had made in so short a period of time. From a memorandum in writing, taken on the spot under the tree itself, at that time, I found it upwards of twenty-five feet high, thriving most luxuriantly, and at least five inches in diameter six feet from the ground. Being an evergreen, the leaves very large, and the lateral branches very numerous and extensive, it was bowed down very considerably by their weight, and the force of the trade wind, though it was in a sheltered situation. On these accounts, Mr. Barrow was under the necessity of cutting off the lateral branches to keep it more upright; and one of these branches was sent to me, and is now offered to the inspection of the Board, through the favour of A. B. Lawtest, Esq. V. P. L. L. to whom I had given it.

'The servant, to whose care its delivery to me was intrusted, most unfortunately barked it before I received it; and being under the necessity of leaving the island immediately, I had not time to procure another specimen.

'The length of the branch was considerable; but it was cut short to enable me to convey it with conveniency during the voyage, and my subsequent journey home into Norfolk.

'The wood is very compact, small grained, and heavy, as will be noticed in the specimen. Its growth is very rapid, if we consider the texture of the wood: the tree had not flowered when I left the island.

'It must prove a most valuable acquisition to the West Indies; particularly in those islands where lands are of little value, and can be suffered to remain encumbered with trees. But it must be valuable in all; for being an evergreen, with very large thick leaves, and a quick grower, it will be planted for ornament. Its use in building the small colony craft will be great indeed; for the property of this timber in resisting the worm renders it invaluable; and its duration in tropical countries is far greater than any other ship timber with which we are acquainted.

'The cedar (*Cedrela odorata* of Brown, p. 158.) and the white wood (*Bignonia pentaphylla* of Brown, p. 263,) both of which resist the worm, are now becoming very scarce in Barbadoes, and were almost exclusively used in building the small vessels; even trees originally planted or left for ornament have been cut down.

'European oak lasts but few years indeed there; and the *termites* are so fond of it as food, that they can hardly be kept from it by any precautions, if the vessels be laid ashore; and oak timbers laid partly in the water and partly ashore, have frequently been seen eaten by them to the very edge of the water.'

Mr. Curwen communicates the plans of Friendly Societies instituted among his colliers, and also an account of a machine for washing and steaming potatoes with which he feeds his horses. Two plates are subjoined.—This paper is followed by another, in which the baking of potatoes for feeding stock is recommended, with the plan of an oven, by Mr. Pierrepont: one short essay, however, intervenes, on feeding sheep, by Mr. Estcourt. These experiments decide in favour of feeding sheep with turnips and hay in a warm open shed.

Mr. Davy's essay on *the Analysis of Soils, as connected with their Improvement*, must be instructive and amusing to the agriculturist. It is divided into distinct sections, and is written with the greatest plainness. The component parts of soils are defined, the mode of separating them and of ascertaining their respective quantities is explained, and a description is given of the necessary apparatus. The young agricultural philosopher will be attracted by this discussion; and in order to give an idea of its utility, we shall quote one section, *on the Improvement of Soils, as connected with the Principle of their Composition.*

'In cases when a barren soil is examined with a view to its improvement, it ought in all cases, if possible, to be compared with an extremely fertile soil in the same neighbourhood, and in a similar situation: the difference given by their analyses would indicate the methods of cultivation; and thus the plan of improvement would be founded upon accurate scientific principles.

'If the fertile soil contained a large quantity of sand, in proportion to the barren soil, the process of amelioration would depend simply upon a supply of this substance; and the method would be equally simple with regard to soils deficient in clay or calcareous matter.

'In the application of clay, sand, loam, marle, or chalk to lands, there are no particular chemical principles to be observed; but when quick lime is used, great care must be taken that it is not obtained from the magnesian limestone; for in this case, as has been shewn by Mr. Tennant, it is exceedingly injurious to land. The magnesian limestone may be distinguished from the common limestone by its greater hardness, and by the length of time that it requires for its solution in acids, and it may be analysed by the process for carbonate of lime and magnesia in Section IX.

'When the analytical comparison indicates an excess of vegetable matter, as the cause of sterility, it may be destroyed by much pulverization and exposure to air, by paring and burning, or the agency of lately made quicklime. And the defect of animal and vegetable matter must be supplied by animal or vegetable manure.'

Of Dr. G. Pearson's paper, which follows, on *the Use of Green Vitriol*, &c. we have already given an account in our last Volume, p. 94. Mr. Dodgson affords useful hints on burning

burning lime with peat, as does Mr. Fisher on feeding horses. No. 15. gives the crop of a water-meadow of nine acres at Priestley in Bedfordshire. The valuation of the produce for one year is stated at 150l. 5s. or 16l. 13s. 8d. per acre.

These short papers are succeeded by three interesting essays on the subject of assigning cottages to the poor, intitled *Account of a Cottager*, by Sir Wm. Pulteney Bart.—*An Account of the Result of an Effort to better the Condition of the Poor in a Country Village; and some Regulations suggested by which the same might be extended to other Parishes of a similar Description*, by Thomas Estcourt, Esq. M.P.—*Observations on the Means of enabling the Cottager to keep a Cow, by the Produce of a small Portion of arable Land*, by Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M.P.; to which is annexed the *Case of a Cottager*, by Sir Henry Vavasour, Bart. By the side of these, we shall place No. 25. *Account of some Cottagers*, by Thomas Babington, Esq. M.P. and No. 30. *Reasons for giving Lands to Cottagers to enable them to keep Cows*, by Thomas Thompson, Esq. Each of these gentlemen proceeds on the same principle, and establishes the same facts. Mr. Estcourt justly observes that 'one of the best species of charity is that which enables the poor man to exert with effort and with honest freedom, that strength and those faculties which Providence has blessed him with for the benefit and support of his family;' and Sir John Sinclair asks whether 'any one can figure to himself a more delightful spectacle, than to see an industrious cottager, his busy wife, and healthy family, living in a comfortable house, rented by himself, cultivating their little territory with their own hands, and enjoying the profits arising from their own labour and industry? or whether it is possible for a generous landholder, to employ his property with more satisfaction, or in a manner more likely to promote, not only his own, but the public interest, than by endeavouring to increase the number of such cottagers, and encouraging, by every means in his power, the exertions of so meritorious, and so important a class of the community?'—We have so often stated our conviction on this subject, that it is unnecessary to repeat it here: but we cannot refrain from expressing our satisfaction at the support which it receives from these communications; which demonstrate that the poor, if they were liberally treated, would improve in good habits, and cease to be a nuisance and a burden.

The Rev. E. Cartwright's *Experimental Essay on Salt as a Manure, and as a Condiment mixed with the Food of Animals*, details some nicely conducted experiments, and obtained the gold medal: but we question whether they will be regarded

as satisfactory. At the end, however, he has published a remedy for diseases in hogs, which is worth knowing: it is antimony. 'I can safely aver, (adds Mr. C.) that when taken in time, there are few internal diseases which hogs are subject to, that will not yield to antimony in some form or other. That form which I prefer is emetic tartar, as lying in small compass. I give it in doses from five to forty or fifty grains, according to the age and strength of my patient, and I believe still larger doses might be given with equal safety, as I do not recollect a single instance in which the animal seemed to suffer from being over-dosed.'

No. 22. includes Lord Meadowbank's *Observations on Manures*. It has been often remarked that manures, in the common practice, are too much exhausted in dung-hills before they are put on the land; and in order to avoid this evil, some persons have gone to the opposite extreme of carting it on the land from the stable door. Lord M. recommends a middle course. His doctrine is that

'The first made dung should be retained in a state of fermentation, so slow or imperfect that it may suffer little till, after being turned over with the later made dung, it forms one powerfully fermenting mass; and that then it should be put into the soil, when the process is so far advanced that it will be completed, when at the same time little loss of substance has yet been suffered, and when what volatile matter is afterwards extricated will diffuse itself through the soil. In these circumstances every thing is lodged in the soil that the dung can yield, either in point of mass or activity; and at the same time it is in a state, when most likely to act as a powerful ferment, for promoting the putrefaction of the decayed vegetables lying inert in the soil.'

In treating *on the Culture of Beans*, Mr. Curwen recommends that they should be cut green.

Sir Joseph Banks's *Short Account of the Cause of Blight in Corn* has been already noticed in M. R. Vol. xlvi. N.S. p. 422.

Mr. Wright, of Pickworth, Rutlandshire, presents the results of a series of experiments on burnt-straw, stable-dung, and rotten dung, as manures. In one instance, burnt straw bears away the palm: but, as one swallow does not make a summer, neither does an individual experiment ascertain the validity of a principle for general practice.

Dr. Belcher affords (No. 28.) the result of experiments on the salts of urine as a manure. He found that so small a weight as five grains of the *soda phosphorata* and of the *ammonia phosphorata*, mixed with sifted gravel in a pot, made the produce more than quadruple to that which took place in the pot in which only gravel was used. Supposing the urine of cattle

cattle to be equally productive with human urine, Dr. B. calculates that every hogshead, which is imprudently suffered to flow out of a farm-yard, carries away seven pounds and a half of dry fetid matter.

A letter from Dr. Campbell to Lord Carrington, dated Fort Marlbro', March 5, 1804, affords the pleasing information that the nutmeg and clove trees are perfectly naturalized in the island of Sumatra, and have found there a congenial climate and soil. Dr. C. strenuously recommends that a light sailing vessel should be sent from Jamaica to Sumatra, for the purpose of importing the black pepper vine into the West Indies, where he is confident that it would flourish.

Mr. Cotes, after much display, gives directions for making what he calls *a Potatoe fallow* on strong soils: but strong soils are not well adapted to Potatoes; and the efficacy which he attributes to a two bout ridge, in creating new earth, appears to us imaginary.

Sir Henry Vavasour offers an account of an humble *seminary for agricultural education*, established in his own village; the object of which is to instruct the infant poor, by means of a garden attached to the parish school-house, in the whole process of horticulture, including grafting, pruning, mixing manures, &c.

On the Form of Animals. By Henry Cline, Esq. Surgeon. The very judicious remarks contained in this paper merit circulation among all breeders of domestic animals. Mr. Cline exposes the serious evils which have resulted from the opinion, that the breed of animals is improved by the largest males; and his doctrine is that, 'when the male is much larger than the female, the offspring is generally of an imperfect form; but if the female be proportionally larger than the male, the offspring is of an improved form.' Examples of the truth of this position are adduced. 'The great improvement of the breed of horses in England arose from crossing with those diminutive stallions, Barbs, and Arabians; and the introduction of Flanders mares in this country was the source of improvement in the breed of cart-horses. The form of the swine has also been improved, by crossing with the small Chinese boar.' On the other hand, 'when it became the fashion in London to drive large bay horses, the farmers in Yorkshire put their mares to much larger stallions than usual, and thus did infinite mischief to the breed, by producing a race of small chested, long legged, large boned, worthless animals.' Mr. Cline's general conclusion is, that 'it is wrong to enlarge a native breed of animals; for in proportion to their increase of size, they

a captivating eloquence which is not comic; there is a mode of preaching which is at once serious and popular; which is undebased by indecorous sallies, and yet is animated and attractive. By this middle course, the mass of hearers is accommodated, and the judicious few are not disgusted. We are ready to allow that this is a medium not easily attained: but the trial should be made, especially by regular ministers, to prevent the inroads of fanaticism.

Mr. Jay is a preacher who discovers some of the leading traits of the popular orator. With a memory completely stored from the scriptures, he possesses an easy habit of explaining them. He has a *knack* of placing little incidents in a practical point of view. His divisions are clear, his sentences are short, and his march of thought is rapid. He does not labour points of doctrine: but assuming the articles of his orthodox creed as data, he converts them to moral purposes. His arguments and illustrations are levelled, sometimes with extreme familiarity, to the meanest capacities. In his manner, he aims at originality; and though his mode of dividing subjects displays a general sameness, it is evident that he is solicitous of variety. He certainly has the power of keeping hearers awake. Each text is so ramified, that every part may produce a distinct effect. The application of the characters and circumstances which occur in gospel history, to the use of modern christians, is forcible; and the great object of the preacher is to induce professors to shew their faith by their works.

These short discourses, then, are calculated to answer the purpose for which they are composed. They are intended to be of such a length that they may be read in fifteen or twenty minutes, though most of them will require more time for the delivery; and the lessons which they afford are chiefly deduced either from 'the *historical* parts of scripture which hold forth the duties of religion in examples or instances, or from the *figurative* which explain divine things by resemblance.' Mr. Jay tells us that his wish has been to engage the particular attention of servants and children, but that he has not confined his views to them. To shew his catholicism, though a dissenter, he has prepared discourses adapted to all the great festivals of the Established Church.

The Address to Masters of Families, which precedes these discourses, is manly and spirited. It exhorts them to act on a steady principle of duty, independently of the example of others. We highly applaud Mr. Jay for venturing to reprobate that *religious dissipation*, as he terms it, which induces Christians to sacrifice the duty of family worship and exhortation, to the habit of what he calls 'lounging in places of

become worse in form, less hardy, and more liable to disease.'

In giving an outline of the multifarious contents of this volume, we have been obliged to observe a degree of brevity which may not in all cases be satisfactory, and still this article occupies more space than we can with convenience assign to it. Our readers will perceive by it that the communications to the Board of Agriculture continue to be ample and various; and that, like the publications which occasionally issue from other societies, the contents of the volume before us are of unequal merit.

A first part of Vol. V. is recently published. Mo.y.

ART. VI. *Short Discourses to be read in Families.* By William Jay. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Williams and Smith, &c.

THE art of preaching is professed by many and understood by few. Common hearers are not captivated either by cold reasoning or by pompous declamation. In order to awaken and keep alive an interest in their minds, the orator must accommodate himself to their habits of thinking; his language must be familiar without being vulgar; he must dissect the human heart with adroitness; his explanation of scripture must be easy and natural; and his exhortations to practice must appear to flow obviously from his premises, and be urged by motives which make a forcible appeal to the man and to the christian. Discourses which are admired in the closet, by men of cultivated minds and refined taste, do not make a strong impression on popular assemblies. The looser harangues of extemporary preachers are known to command attention, when laboured argument and well turned periods excite languor and yawning; and mere ranters draw crowds, while frigid reasoners address themselves to empty pews. What should preachers learn from these facts? We answer; they should study the qualities of that eloquence which is adapted to the multitude; they should consider that, though the ranter often abounds in nonsense and tautology, he generally talks to be understood and felt; and it is worth while to analize the source of that satisfaction which the multitude derives from his addresses. It is to be feared that a part of the charm consists in what may be called the *oddities* and *excentricities* of popular preachers, and that some are followed on the same principle which carries auditors to the representation of a comedy or a farce: but this is not the whole of the motive, nor the prevailing cause with the majority. There is a cap-

public worship.' He does not, however, specify the mischiefs which may arise from Sunday-evening Lectures, by affording pretexts to servants and children for being absent from home in the evening. Harm rather than good, we fear, often results from evening-lectures; and we appeal to the sober sense of the author of these family discourses, whether he ought to countenance them, and by evening preaching aid the cause of 'religious dissipation.'

Fifty-three discourses are contained in the two volumes before us, the titles of which are Vol. I. Returning from a Journey; God the best of Fathers; Saturday Evening; The Eye of God always upon us; the Death of Jesus (Good Friday); Confidence in God composing the Mind; Spring; The happy Family; The Sight of Christian Friends enlivening; The Christian indeed! (before the Lord's Supper); The final Change (Easter); Religious Things, pleasant Things (Lord's Day Evening); Nearness to the Cross; The Throne of Grace; Summer and Harvest; the Funeral of a Youth; Fears removed; The profane Exchange; Nathaniel; The Characters of Sin; Acquiescence in the Will of God; The Child Jesus (Christmas); The Design of our Saviour's coming (Christmas); The Union of Prayer and Watchfulness; The Tree of Life; Backsliding reproved; The Misery of contending with God; Communion with the Saviour inseparable from Holiness. (Vol. II.) A Check to Presumption; Review of Life (Last day of the year); Our Ignorance of Futurity (New year's day); Religion more than Formality; Autumn; The Design of Affliction; the End of the Saviour's Exaltation; Religion makes us profitable; The Cure of blind Bartimeus; Winter; Christians not of the World; Weak Grace encouraged; Martha and Mary; God abandons the Incorrigible; The Ascension of our Saviour; The Prayer of Nehemiah; An Address to Youth (the first Day of the year); The Unbelief of Thomas (Easter); Contentment with little; Our Duty in Relation to the Spirit (Whitsunday); The Ascension of Elijah; the Punishment of Adoni-Bezek improved; The cheerful Pilgrim; Sin ruins a Kingdom (for a Fast Day); The Saviour comforting his Disciples (after a funeral).

It will hence appear that Mr. Jay has chosen a variety of interesting subjects; and his discussion of them presents a multitude of serious reflections, which "come home to men's business and bosoms," in the various relations of life. His reproofs are directed to particular cases, and cannot easily be parried. We do not subscribe to all his positions: but, as it is impossible not to applaud his uniform aim, we shall not be minute critics on the present occasion. We shall satisfy ourselves

ourselves with making two or three selections, to indicate the familiar style of these discourses.

Having commented on the truly affecting passage recorded by John, xix. 25—27, in which our Saviour bequeaths the care of his mother to the disciple whom he loved, the preacher thus proceeds:

'This is very instructive. It reminds us, first, of the indigence of our Lord and Saviour. Many talk of poverty, but he *was* poor. In ordinary cases he was sustained by alms; in extraordinary ones by miracles. When he came to die, he had no personal property, or landed estate to leave. All he had to bequeath was his wearing apparel, and even this never came to his mother: *they parted his raiment among them, and for his vesture did they cast lots.*

'What becomes then of riches? Are we such fools as to fall down and worship this idol of general adoration? Does money produce—does it imply worth? *Silver and gold I have none*, says Peter—So then a man may be an apostle and be moneyless. *Foxes have holes, and the birds of the air have nests, but the son of man hath not where to lay his head*—why then a being may be *the brightness of the father's glory, and the express image of his person*, and be destitute!—But alas! all this will not keep numbers from thinking money the summit of all excellency. O money; money can add charms to ugliness; money can transform wrinkles into youth: money can fill brainless heads with wisdom, and render nonsense oracular: money can turn meanness into virtue, and falling like snow can cover a dunghill, and give it the appearance of whiteness and innocency!'

In the Sermon on Martha and Mary, Mr. Jay fairly appreciates the character of the former, and makes some sort of vindication of her: but he gives her what Dr. Johnson would call *a hard knock* at parting:

'Martha, instead of a plain repast, *was cumbered about much serving*; and was all anxiety to furnish an entertainment, which, while it was rendered unnecessary by the plainness and piety of the visitants, allowed her no degree of leisure, and engrossed all her time and attention. Thus she deprived herself of an opportunity to hear our Saviour's discourse. This she should have prized. He was no ordinary teacher: his stay was not likely to be of long continuance; she knew not when the blessing would come again in her way.

'This was not all. She rudely breaks in upon the devotion of the company; interrupts our Lord's discourse; condemns her sister as idle; and tries to involve our Saviour in the quarrel. *Lord, dost thou not care that my sister hath left me to serve alone? Bid her therefore that she help me.* Here we see ill humour, fretfulness, snappishness: she is *troubled about many things*; and in her heat, her temper boils over, and scalds others. I pity Martha's servants. It is easy to guess how they would be found fault with, when their mistress could go and scold in the presence of the twelve apostles, and the Son of God.'

It is impossible to read the last sentence without a smile:—or perhaps also the protest of Mr. Jay, in this discourse, against the practice of inviting ministers to good dinners.

Many pretty remarks are offered on the subject of Winter. We transcribe one of the divisions:

'Fourthly, this season calls upon us to exercise benevolence. Sympathy is now more powerfully excited than at any other period; we are enabled more easily to enter into the feelings of others less favored than ourselves. And while we are enjoying every convenience and comfort which the tenderness of Providence can afford—O let us think of the indigent and miserable. Let us think of those whose poor hovels, and shattered panes cannot skreen them from the piercing cold. Let us think of those whose tattered garments scarcely cover their shivering flesh. Let us think of the starving poor, who, after a struggle which to relinquish, give up their small pittance of bread, to get a little fuel to warm their frozen limbs. Let us think of the old and the infirm; of the sick and the diseased. When evening draws on, let us reflect upon the scene so exquisitely touched by the pencil of sensibility—

"Poor, yet industrious, modest, quiet, neat,
Such claim compassion in a night like this,
And have a friend in every feeling heart.
Warmed while it lasts, by labor all day long
They brave the season, and yet find at eve,
Ill clad and fed but sparely, time to cool.
The frugal housewife trembles when she lights
Her scanty stock of brush-wood blazing clear,
But dying soon, like all terrestrial joys,
The few small embers left she nurses well;
And while her infant race, with outspred hands
And crowded knees, sit cow'ring o'er the sparks,
Retires, content to quake, so they be warmed."

'O let *the blessing of them that are ready to perish come upon us.* Who would not *labor that he may have to give to him that needeth.* Who would not deny himself superfluities, and—something more—that his bounty may visit *the fatherless and the widows in their affliction.*

'Ah! ye unfeeling, ye worldly-minded, that *stretch yourselves upon your couches – that chant to the sound of the viol—that drink wine in bowls, and anoint yourselves with the chief ointments, but are not grieved for the affliction of Joseph:* O ye who can repair to every avenue of dissipation and trample on so much distress, and shut your ears against so many groans in your way thither—on what do you found your title to humanity?—Thy judgment is to come. Or do you lay claim to religion?——Merciless wretch, can knowledge or orthodoxy, save thee?—*Whoso hath this world's good; and seeth his brother have need, and shutteth up his bowels of compassion from him; how dwelleth the love of God in him? My little children, let us not love in word; neither in tongue; but in deed and in truth. If a brother or sister be naked, and*

destitute of daily food, and one of you say unto them, depart in peace: be ye warmed and filled;' notwithstanding ye give them not those things which are needful to the body; what doth it profit? even so, faith if it hath not works is dead, being alone.'

Mr. Jay occasionally introduces passages of poetry, which enliven his addresses; and if others were, with judgment, to follow his example, their discourses would be more striking and impressive.

The Sermon on the punishment of Adoni-Bezek concludes with this exhortation:

'Abhor cruelty. It is equally disgraceful to religion and humanity. It renders you unpitied of God and man. I hope none of you would be so dreadfully savage as this monster, to torture and mangle your fellow creatures, if you had it in your power. But let me speak a word for the poor brutes, who cannot speak for themselves, though unhappily they have the power of feeling. My dear little friends! Never torment animals. Never sport with the misery of insects Never cut off their legs or wings. God's tender mercies are over all his works. He hears the young ravens that cry. Be followers of God as dear children.'

These humane sentiments are rather aukwardly affixed to the history of the destruction of the Canaanites; in which event, cattle as well as men suffered miserably *.

On the unbelief of Thomas, it is observed that

'It is possible for a good man to be overtaken in a fault. He is sanctified but in part. He may be checked in his course, and chilled in his zeal; his hope may decline; his faith may stagger through unbelief. Indeed where is the believer who has not reason to cry out with the father of the child, *Lord I believe, help thou my unbelief.* The apostles themselves prayed, *Lord increase our faith.* But there is a difference between impressions and principles; between a wrong step, and a wrong course. Let us not judge of a character by a single action. Thomas had true faith, notwithstanding this instance of unbelief. And he soon recovered from his infirmity.

'—Yea, it was over ruled for good. It ended in the humiliation and zeal of this disciple; and in the greater confirmation of thousands, ever since. For if those who have attested the things reported unto us in the gospel, had been men of easy and hasty persuasion, their deposition would have been suspicious—but we find that they were men full of pertinacious doubts, who admitted nothing, till evidence extorted conviction. His unbelief, therefore, is the means of strengthening our faith. To which we may add, that it serves also to honour our Lord and Saviour, not only by evincing more fully, the truth of his resurrection, but also in discovering the excellency, and amiableness of his character.'

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* Joshua, xi. 6.

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We leave our readers to judge how far these passages justify the character which now, and on a former occasion (see Rev. for January 1803, p. 83.), we have given of Mr. Jay as a preacher.

Had the author confined himself to the length of the first sermon, viz. eight pages, he would in our opinion have rendered them still more acceptable to most families. Discourses occupying from 16 to 20 pages are long enough for the pulpit. May.

ART. VII. *Lectures on Natural Philosophy:* the Result of many Years' practical Experience of the Facts elucidated. With an Appendix: containing a great Number and Variety of Astronomical and Geographical Problems; also some useful Tables, and a comprehensive Vocabulary. By Margaret Bryan. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley, &c. 1806.

THIS is the second work which, on subjects that are abstruse and are usually placed apart from female curiosity, has within these few years been submitted to our criticism by Mrs. Bryan *; and we can truly say that she is a very ingenious and industrious writer. At the approach of a fair lady, indeed, with less merit than Mrs. B. possesses, the rugged brow of criticism ought to be smoothed; and the public ought not violently to blame us if, for a while, we forget the rules of severe justice, and the sentences of angry reprehension.

On various philosophical subjects, much useful information is collected and arranged in the present volume. Optics, Hydrostatics, Magnetism, Electricity, Mechanics, Astronomy, &c. are treated; and if the depths of these sciences are not sounded by the aid of analytic formulæ, yet those of their truths which are most useful, most simple, and most easy of apprehension, are culled for the acceptance and information of the reader. They are not offered in a form which is repulsive and disgusting, but with decorations too splendid, and in verbal dresses rather too fine and spangled for their nature and condition. This, we must observe, ought to have been otherwise. The simple truths of science cannot be too simply expressed. Intended neither to awaken nor to inflame the passions, nor to delude the understanding, they need not the allurements and captivations of phraseology: they are the offspring of patience and of industry; and it ill befits their origin, education, and pretensions, to affect the gorgeous and gaudy apparel of the children of fancy and of sentiment.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxvi. N.S. p. 406. for Mrs. B.'s System of Astronomy.

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To her great honor be it said that, throughout the work, Mrs. Bryan appears zealous for the interests of morality and religion, and that every page testifies to her piety: but, although there be nothing more excellent as a mental habit and feeling than piety, yet, as the lady was professedly writing on Philosophy and Mathematics, she ought perhaps to have put some restraint on her strong disposition to the feelings of religious gratitude, and to their expression. The reader is called too frequently to exercise his thankful adoration. Philosophy is the handmaid of Religion:—the wisdom and goodness of God are most perspicuously displayed in the regulations of the planetary system, and in the curious contrivances by which animal life is supported and defended:—the paw of the monkey and the stomach of the camel confound atheism:—but the mechanical operations of engines call with less earnestness for the devotion of man. An air-gun, no doubt, is a curious contrivance: but, in the contemplation of it, Mrs. B. finds an excitation to piety. Little disposed to throw ridicule on subjects that are in any way connected with our serious duties, yet we could not forbear smiling at the following passage, which immediately succeeds to the description of the valves, ramrod, and trigger of an Air-Gun:

'How does each new subject raise our admiration of the kind, provident, and protecting goodness of our great Creator! Surely no one can be so blind as not to perceive in the wonderful processes of nature a regular arrangement of causes and effects, produced by infinite Wisdom and Beneficence. How greatly, then, ought we to rejoice in every opportunity that enables us to contemplate our Creator in his works! This exercise of our reasoning powers strengthens our judgment, and elevates our ideas of religion and morality, placing them in their proper rank—the first in our esteem and admiration. Through the properties of air we have already investigated, we trace the hand of an all-wise Providence liberally bestowing benefits on creatures dependent on his goodness. Yet the unthinking many disregard these evidences, and, till roused to reflection, feel not the gratitude for them which must glow in the breast of the natural philosopher.'

In page 104, this sentence is inaccurate or obscure:

'We may reasonably conclude that water is a fluid, from its combination with fire in an active state; for when that fluid is quiescent, the particles of water adhere together, no active force inducing a separation of them; and supposing fire to reside with air in the interstitial vacuities between the particles of water, yet when inactive it does not increase its volume: from which also we infer, that the elementary parts of water are solid.'

Did our leisure permit, and the necessity of the case demand it, we could extract several other passages that require

require to be re-moulded, and cast over again. If we were resolved to censure, we cannot conceal that more than one opportunity of critical reprehension presents itself: but, if we would commend, we must for ever despair of reaching the exaltation of Mrs. B.'s commendatory style:

'The idea of the application of gunpowder to the purposes of fire-arms was first intimated by Roger Bacon in the thirteenth century. In 1280 he wrote a treatise on this application of it. His ideas have since been much improved on; and the theory of projectiles is clearly understood in the present day, through the effective energetic mind and liberal communication of that great and most sublime mathematician Dr. Charles Hutton, who has calculated these effects with the minutest accuracy, and brought this science to the greatest perfection.'

The present treatise is handsomely printed, and the plates are neatly executed. It is not adapted for those rough males who migrate from the north to learn Mathematics and Wranglership in the University of Cambridge: but, with the softer and fair sex, it will serve profitably to relieve the duties of the needle, the lessons of the harpsichord, and the conjugations of Chambaud.

To Mrs. Bryan we wish to be polite, and our jealousies are not hitherto excited; yet we shall guard our peculiar provinces with care and watchful suspicion. Their borders may be visited for curiosity and amusement, but against a formal inroad and invasion of female Philosophers we shall take arms. In our code, we have written that Politics, Greek, and Analytics, are generally forbidden to the ladies: too much study will spoil their engaging faces and their fascinating manners; for Voltaire, in his laughter, has spoken some truth when he says; "*Voyez toutes nos dames, elles ont l'esprit plus agréable que les hommes; leurs lettres sont écrites avec cent fois plus de grace; elles n'ont sur nous cette superiorité que parce qu'elles ne savent pas* le Latin."

R.W.

ART. VIII. *The Doctrines of Heathen Philosophy, compared with those of Revelation.* By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 8vo. Printed at Northumberland, in America; sold in London by Johnson, price 4s. Boards.

WHATEVER ground for controversy the external evidences of Revelation have afforded, we find scarcely any matter for debate on that kind of evidence which results from the nature of its contents. Here the appeal is made to facts which are at once strong and conclusive. Men may doubt the existence

existence of miracles, and resist the testimony deduced from prophecy: but, if the system, in behalf of which it is contended that Divine Power has been exerted, be intrinsically superior to every *thing* that has proceeded from human wisdom, they must at least admit that it merits their first respect and acceptance. Thus the doctrines of Revelation may be said to stamp a credibility on the history of its miraculous introduction, in as much as they are worthy of being supernaturally ratified.—This was the strong ground which Dr. Priestley occupied in his last controversy with, or rather appeal to, Infidels; and the impression which his arguments made on his own mind may be satisfactorily collected from the joyful hope which he experienced in the concluding scene of his mortal life. In the posthumous publication before us, we perceive with pleasure that the zeal of this truly great and good man for the cause of Christianity in general was superior to his zeal for particular tenets; and as an evidence of the liberal spirit by which he was instigated in this composition, he dedicates it to the Rev. Joseph Berington, a Catholic Priest in England, and to the Right Rev. William White, the Bishop of the Episcopalian Church in the United States.

The argument in behalf of Revelation, derived from the consideration of its superior excellence, has indeed been often employed, but by no writer with more fairness and conciseness than by Dr. P. in the present tract. He compares the doctrines concerning the worship of Deity and concerning human conduct, which prevailed in antient Greece, and which are preserved in the poetry of Hesiod and Homer,—as well as the subsequent philosophy of Pythagoras, of Socrates, of Plato, of Aristotle, of Marcus Antoninus, of Epictetus, of Arrian, of Seneca, and of Epicurus, with the theological and moral principles which are inculcated in the Sacred Scriptures; and he fully proves that the teachings of Christ and his Apostles surpass, in value, all that arrogated to itself the title of science among the Greeks and Romans.

In that part of the work which is intitled 'Socrates and Jesus compared,' Dr. P. delivers his opinion on *the Demon*, by which Socrates pretended that communications were at times made to him. We were not a little surprised, however, on finding Dr. P. incline to the notion, that Socrates was occasionally favoured with *divine* intimations. 'I do not see (says he) any thing unworthy of the Divine Being in his distinguishing this extraordinary man in this way.' This remark is not only weak, but singularly out of place; for if Socrates had enjoyed the benefit of Revelation, how could the doctrines of this Grecian Sage be contrasted with Revelation? Moreover,

had

had the Divine Being distinguished this extraordinary man by supernatural communications, could he have remained an idolater?— It is but fair to add that Dr. P. seems afterward ashamed of this unguarded assertion; since, at the conclusion of the Essay, he says that his opinion is unsettled, and he shall probably revert to his former notion that, by his Demon, Socrates only meant his own good sense.

It is now impossible for us to ascertain the private sentiments of Socrates concerning the Deity. He certainly died an idolater; and there is no evidence for concluding that he was a believer in the *divine Unity:* but we cannot, with Dr. P., question the possibility of arriving by the mere light of nature at a firm belief of the Unity of God. What is the opinion of St. Paul on this subject, Romans, i. 20.?

The doctrines of the antient philosophers are here generally contrasted with those of Revelation, under the heads of *God and his Providence*, of *the Human Soul*, of *Virtue and Vice*, and *of Death and its Consequences.*

In his examination of the philosophy of Plato, the author does not omit to notice the protection which it extended to Polytheism, and the opposition which even this philosopher inculcated against all changes in the exteriors of the national religion; with which Dr. P. contrasts the doctrine of our Saviour:

"There should also (says Plato) be a general law to prevent any person from making what gods or what sacred rites he pleases; and for this reason no persons should have chapels for worship in their own houses, but perform their worship in public, and be punished unless they do so. If any person, not from childishness, but from depraved impiety, act in this manner, by sacrificing either in private or in the public worship of the gods, let him be condemned to death as impure; and let the regulators of the laws judge concerning the motives of his conduct." (De Leg. Lib. 10.)

'So intolerant were the wisest and best disposed of all the heathens with respect to religion, that we cannot wonder at the dread they entertained of christianity, when it began to spread, as it was according to their ideas, the height of *impiety*; aiming at nothing less than the overthrow of every thing that was deemed the most sacred, and what had been established from time immemorial, and on which it was universally taken for granted that the well-being of every state depended.

'But Christ was fully aware of this difficulty, and he apprized his followers of it. He enabled them, however, to overcome it, though they were forewarned that they should be *hated of all men for the sake of his name*, that is, merely for being christians, and that *they who killed them would think they did God service*; which was actually the case, both with respect to Jews and heathens. And great as this obstacle was, which made all that was powerful in the world the enemy of christianity, it finally triumphed; and it is now the prevailing

ing religion in all those countries in which Jupiter, Juno, and numberless other objects of heathen worship, were most revered, but whose names are now to be learned from history only. This is an argument of peculiar importance with respect to the evidence of christianity, but can only be felt and understood by those who are acquainted with the opinions and prejudices of the heathens at the time of its promulgation. And these opinions and prejudices appear now to be so unreasonable, and extraordinary, that a faithful account of them is barely credible. That Plato was both sensible of the great ignorance of the common people on the subject of religion, and of the hazard that might be the consequence of informing them better, appears from his saying (Timæus,) "It is a difficult thing to discover the nature of the creator of the universe, and being discovered, it is impossible to expose the discovery to vulgar understandings.'

After having, in a subsequent chapter, reviewed the works of Aristotle, the Doctor subjoins these judicious remarks:

'We have seen the result of the speculation, and laborious researches, of the most acute and sagacious of all the Grecian philosophers, of a man who, with respect both to genius and industry, may be classed among the first of mankind, on these most important subjects. But notwithstanding marks of superior good sense, and discernment, in the writings of Aristotle, we do not find in them any real advance in theological or moral science. And as to any *practical use* of his doctrines, it appears to be something less than the world was in possession of before.

'As to the great object of heathen philosophy in general, which was to enable men to bear the evils of life, and the fear or the pains of death, he never, that I recollect, so much as mentions the subject; but treats of generation and dissolution merely as natural phenomena, to be explained upon physical principles, but he never regards them in a moral light. On the consequence of death, and a state of retribution after it, he is likewise wholly silent; probably from not believing any thing either of the notions of the vulgar, or the refined speculations of Plato. Had the subjects been much upon his mind, he must have treated of them, and with seriousness, as in themselves highly interesting to himself; as well as to the rest of mankind.

'What is peculiarly remarkable in Aristotle, is that though he *reasons* much, and disputes with wonderful subtlety, he seems to have *felt* nothing. He never expresses himself with any warmth, or any degree of sensibility, when he is treating of the most important subjects; but writes concerning God, and the soul, and of virtue and vice, with as much coolness as he describes his plants and animals. How different, in this respect, as well as in many others, are the writings of Aristotle from the Psalms of David, the writings of the prophets, and other devotional and moral articles in the books of scripture, penned by men of no uncommon ability of any kind, but deeply impressed with the importance of the subjects on which they write, and having more knowledge of them. They know infinitely

more of God, and of his constant attention to the affairs of men, individuals as well as nations, and therefore they write as if they were really sensible of his presence with them, and his unremitted attention to them, as the proper author of all the good and evil that fell to their lot. They regarded him not only as their moral governor, and final judge, but as their father, and their friend; and thence were led to address themselves to him on all interesting occasions.

'What is there, in this respect, in all the heathen writings to compare with the language of the Psalms? To quote a few verses out of thousands, I shall just transcribe the beginning of the 116th Psalm. *I love the Lord because he has heard my voice, and my supplications. Because he has inclined his ear unto me, therefore will I call upon him as long as I live. The sorrows of death compassed me, and the pains of hell got hold upon me. I found trouble and sorrow, then called I upon the name of the Lord, O Lord I beseech thee, deliver my soul. &c. &c.*

'I am tempted to add the beginning of the 139th Psalm. *O Lord thou hast searched me and known me. Thou knowest my down sitting and my uprising. Thou understandest my thoughts afar off. Thou compassest my path, and my lying down, and art acquainted with all my ways. For there is not a word in my tongue, but lo, O Lord, thou knowest it altogether. Thou hast beset me behind and before, and laid thine hand upon me. Such knowledge is too wonderful for me. It is high, I cannot attain unto it.*

'This is language that comes from the *heart*, implying a feeling sense of the intimate presence, and constant inspection, of God, naturally producing a *direct address* to him, which does not appear ever to have been made by any of the philosophers.'

Some pertinent remarks are offered on the Stoical doctrine of indifference to pleasure and pain, and the little consolation afforded by the principles of Epicurus. We cannot make specific extracts, but shall insert the general summary made by Dr. P. at the end of this work:

'We have seen that, at the commencement of our enquiry, all the more intelligent Greeks retained the belief of the existence of one Supreme Being, the maker of the world, and of all things in it, though aided by a multiplicity of inferior ones in the government of it: of the constant attention of this great Being to all human affairs, of his love of virtue, and abhorrence of vice, and of such an administration of the world, as that the wicked will generally meet with their due punishment, and the virtuous with their proper reward; that the souls of all men are immortal, and will be more fully rewarded or punished, according to their deserts, in a future state. But as we have advanced, we have found these principles and motives of moral conduct grow more obscure, till at last they entirely vanished; other principles, utterly inconsistent with them, being generally received; as that of the derivation of all human souls from the substance of the Supreme Being, and their final absorption into the same source again, all individual consciousness being thereby lost. The last of these sects, viz. that of the Epicureans, who discover more good sense, and consistency in other respects, disclaimed all

all belief of wisdom and design in the construction of the universe, and of the providence of God in any of the affairs of men. At this time, too, the last period of heathen philosophy, all the sects, without exception, had abandoned the belief of a future state of any kind. And yet, with respect to mental ability, the founders of these sects may be classed among the first of the human race, sagacious, thoughtful, and laborious, in the extreme. What prospect was there, then, of the world ever becoming more enlightened by human wisdom, and the experiment was continued a sufficient length of time, from Pythagoras to Marcus Antoninus, a space of about seven hundred years.

'But what men could not do for themselves, it pleased God to do for them; and after giving much light to one particular nation, *in the fulness of time* he sent Jesus Christ, with abundant evidence of a divine mission to be the light of the whole world. His doctrine, in a reasonable time, through the instrumentality of men to appearance the least qualified for the undertaking, and in spite of all opposition from power, from prejudice, and from heathen philosophy, established itself, to the utter overthrow of all preceding religions, which having been maintained from time immemorial, and thought to be connected with the well being of every state, had ever been held the most sacred. At present no doubt is entertained by any christian of the being or providence of God in this state, or of a righteous retribution in another: so that nothing is wanting, no *principle* or *motive*, whatever, to the virtue and happiness of man, but his receiving this divine light, and living according to it.'

The view which is given of Christianity in these pages is full of consolation, and is not only adapted to strengthen our faith, but, by excluding points of controversy, is calculated for all communions. The volume is very incorrectly printed. Mo.y.

Art. IX. ΕΠΕΑ ΠΤΕΡΟΕΝΤΑ. Or, The Diversions of Purley. Part II. By J. Horne Tooke. 4to. pp. 516. £1 11s. 6d Boards. Johnson. 1805. 1£/

Many years have elapsed since the *Winged Words*, which constitute the *Diversions of Purley*, were first announced to the readers of the Monthly Review. In our Number for January 1787, (Vol. lxxvi.) we explained to them the *singular* meaning of the *double* title which Mr. Horne Tooke had chosen to give to his etymological researches, and presented to them a view of the contents of the first part of his performance. A greatly enlarged edition called on us again to speak of it, in the 27th Vol. of our New Series, p. 423.—and once more we are gladly summoned to attend him, in the prosecution of his arduous and eminently successful studies. G.2.

Few men, perhaps, of the present age, can boast a name more familiar to the popular ear than Mr. Horne Tooke:—in Great Britain more particularly as a politician, and throughout Europe as a scholar. His Επεα Πτεροεντα will "wing" his fame through future ages; and as long as the first chapter of the present volume exists, the world will possess a striking picture of the mind of the author. It presents in miniature his turn of thought, his leading qualities, and his predominant habits; and it discovers, in a high degree, the acuteness which distinguishes him, the discontent which preys on his temper, the bent of his reflections, and his style of writing. While, however, it seems to be a simple disclosure of the favourite political tenets of the writer, and a vindication of his public conduct, it happily elucidates a very important grammatical discovery, which the greatest part of the volume is devoted to support. The whole is thrown into the form of a dialogue between two characters, namely, the author (H) in *propriâ personâ* and his friend the late unsuccessful candidate (F) for the representation of the county of Middlesex. It opens with the subject of the Rights of Man, and early in the conversation the disciple asks:

'F. Must we always be seeking after the meaning of words?

'H. Of important words we must if we wish to avoid important error. The meaning of these words especially is of the greatest consequence to mankind; and seems to have been strangely neglected by those who have made the most use of them.

'F. The meaning of the word RIGHT?—Why—It is used so variously, as substantive, adjective, and adverb; and has such apparently different significations; (I think they reckon between thirty and forty) that I should hardly imagine any one single explanation of the term would be applicable to all its uses.

'We say—A man's RIGHT.
A RIGHT conduct.
A RIGHT reckoning.
A RIGHT line.
The RIGHT road.
To do RIGHT.
To be in the RIGHT.
To have the RIGHT on one's side.
The RIGHT hand.

'RIGHT itself is an *abstract idea*: and not referring to any sensible objects, the terms which are the representatives of *abstract ideas* are sometimes very difficult to define or explain.

'H. Oh! Then you are for returning again to your convenient *abstract ideas*; and so getting rid of the question.'—

'H. RIGHT is no other than RECT-*um* (*Regitum*), the past participle of the Latin verb *Regere*. Whence in Italian you have RITTO; and

and from *Dirigere*, DIRITTO, DRITTO: whence the French have their antient DROICT, and their modern DROIT. The Italian DRITTO and the French DROIT being no other than the past participle *Direct-um.*

'In the same manner our English word JUST is the past participle of the verb *jubere.*

'DECREE, EDICT, STATUTE, INSTITUTE, MANDATE, PRECEPT, are all past participles.

'F. What then is LAW?

'H. In our antient books it was written *Laugh*, *Lagh*, Lage, and *Ley*; as *Inlaugh*, *Utlage*, *Hundred-Lagh*, &c.

'It is merely the past tense and past participle Lag or Læg of the Gothic and Anglo-saxon verb ᛚᚨᚷᚨᚾ Lecgan ponere: and it means (something or any thing, *Chose*, *Cosa*, *Aliquid*) *Laid down*—as a rule of conduct.

'Thus, When a man demands his RIGHT; he asks only that which it is *Ordered* he shall have.

'A RIGHT conduct is, that which is *Ordered.*

'A RIGHT reckoning is, that which is *Ordered.*

'A RIGHT line is, that which is *Ordered* or *directed*—(not a random extension, but) the shortest between two points.

'The RIGHT road is, that *Ordered* or *directed* to be pursued (for the object you have in view.)

'To do RIGHT is, to do that which is *Ordered* to be done.

'To be in the RIGHT is to be in such situation or circumstances as are *Ordered.*

'To have RIGHT or LAW on one's side is, to have in one's favour that which is *Ordered* or *Laid down.*

'A RIGHT and JUST action is, such a one as is *Ordered* and *commanded.*

'A JUST man is, such as he is *commanded* to be—qui *Leges Jura-que* servat—who observes and obeys the things *Laid down* and *commanded.*

'The RIGHT hand is, that which Custom and those who have brought us up have *Ordered* or *directed* us to use in preference, when one hand only is employed: and the LEFT hand is, that which is *Leaved*, *Leav'd*, *Left*; or which we are taught to *Leave* out of use on such an occasion. So that LEFT, you see, is also a past participle.

'F. But if the laws or education or custom of any country should *order* or *direct* its inhabitants to use the LEFT hand in preference; how would your explanation of RIGHT hand apply to them? And I remember to have read in a voyage of De Gama's to Kalekut (the first made by the Portuguese round Africa) that the people of Melinda, a polished and flourishing people, are all *Left-handed.*

'H. With reference to the European custom, the author describes them truly. But the people of Melinda are as *Right-handed* as the Portuguese: for they use that hand in preference which is *Ordered* by their custom, and *Leave* out of employ the other; which is therefore their LEFT hand.'—

'F. Every thing then that is *Ordered* and *commanded* is RIGHT and JUST!

 'H. Surely.

'H. Surely. For that is only affirming that what is *Ordered* and *commanded*, is—*Ordered* and *commanded*.

'F. Now what becomes of your vaunted RIGHTS of man? According to you, the chief merit of men is obedience: and whatever is *Ordered* and *commanded* is RIGHT and JUST! This is pretty well for a Democrat! And these have always been your sentiments?

'H. Always. And these sentiments confirm my democracy.

'F. These sentiments do not appear to have made you very conspicuous for obedience. There are not a few passages, I believe, in your life, where you have opposed what was *Ordered* and *commanded*. Upon your own principles, was that RIGHT?

'H. Perfectly.

'F. How now! Was it *Ordered* and *commanded* that you should oppose what was *Ordered* and *commanded?* Can the same thing be at the same time both RIGHT and WRONG?

'H. Travel back to Melinda, and you will find the difficulty most easily solved. A thing may be at the same time both RIGHT and WRONG, as well as RIGHT and LEFT. It may be *commanded* to be done, and *commanded* not to be done. The LAW, Læg, Lag, i. e. That which is *Laid down*, may be different by different authorities.

'I have always been most obedient when most taxed with disobedience. But my RIGHT hand is not the RIGHT hand of Melinda. The RIGHT I revere is not the RIGHT adored by sycophants; the *Jus vagum*, the capricious *command* of princes or ministers. I follow the LAW of God (what is *Laid down* by him for the rule of my conduct) when I follow the LAWS of human nature; which, without any human testimony, we know must proceed from God: and upon these are founded the RIGHTS of man, or what is *ordered* for man. I revere the Constitution and constitutional LAWS of England; because they are in conformity with the LAWS of God and nature; and upon these are founded the rational RIGHTS of Englishmen. If princes or ministers or the corrupted sham representatives of a people, *order*, *command*, or *lay down* any thing contrary to that which is *ordered*, *commanded* or *laid down* by God, human nature, or the constitution of this government; I will still hold fast by the higher authorities. If the meaner authorities are offended, they can only destroy the body of the individual; but never can affect the RIGHT, or that which is *ordered* by their superiors.'

These extracts, if regarded as illustrations of the notions which the author entertains of the class of words to which the terms *right*, *justice*, and *law* belong, are in our judgment happy and satisfactory: but if they were intended to throw new light on or to give fresh confirmation to any political tenets, we freely declare that we regard them as having completely failed of their object. These passages contain no demonstration; all is assertion; and in our opinion the conclusions go beyond the author's professed principles. It is here laid down that civil authority is to be administered according

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to certain general laws; and that, when it is at variance with those laws, it is no longer intitled to regard. This is not simply declaring that the good of the society is the end of civil government, and asserting the right of resistance generally; it extends much farther, and claims in favour of the private subject a right, in every instance in which government errs from its original design, to disobey it; and of this error it makes the individual himself the judge. At least, all this is claimed by the ingenious author personally; and we are not aware that he prefers it on the ground of the superior talents and attainments which distinguish him, but suppose that he is to be considered as asserting a right which he admits to belong to all his fellow-subjects equally with himself. It then appears that the doctrine of this dialogue, which is so ingenious as a grammatical comment, and which is in every view of it eminently lively and piquant, goes much beyond the point for which the able author would contend, were the gratification of indulging in a species of *double entendre* out of the question. It is somewhat unusual to attempt the exemplification of a doctrine when it has scarcely been stated, much less established; and it would seem to be equally unfortunate that its application should lead to errors which are too palpable to admit either of defence or of explanation. Let us not, however, impute the blame to the theory, which is in no degree chargeable with it; the *faux pas* has been occasioned by a puerile love of point, to which the extraordinary mind of this ardent, indefatigable, and most successful inquirer is subject. If he stumbles in the vestibule, let us only follow him into the interior of the temple, and we shall discover the strength, symmetry, and beauty which characterize the fabrics of truth; though we observe, placed here and there, utensils and ornaments which are very little in character with the nature and design of the edifice.

The greater part of this volume is occupied by the consideration of the terms which have been represented very generally as the signs of abstract ideas.

That abstract ideas had no archetypes *in rerum naturâ*, that they were mere *entes rationis*, has been the universal sentiment since the extinction of the realists; who, at the revival of letters, died away with the rest of the subtile race denominated the schoolmen. The sound judgment of Hobbes protected him from the wrong notions into which Locke fell in this particular; and the error of that great and excellent man discovered itself under the analysis to which the functions of the mind were subjected by the exquisite subtilty of Berkeley. He laboured to shew, that the contrivance, which others before him supposed to have been applied to the idea, belonged only to

the term, and that the abstraction respected the sign and not the impression. Here he was followed by Mr. Tooke in the former volume of Επεα Πτεροεντα. The contrivance, it had before been manifested, applied to the term; and therefore this was no new disclosure: but the praise of original discovery on this head of language unquestionably belongs to the present author. He has not been contented to say that the contrivance only goes to the term, but he has ascertained what the contrivance is. He altogether discards the term *abstraction*, and substitutes for it that of *subaudition*, which at once unveils the whole mystery. Mr. Tooke finds that the words which have been represented as the signs of abstract ideas, and have been called also abstract terms, are either present or past participles, and in a few instances adjectives, or the third person singular of the indicative; *subauditum* in the one case, the substantive, and in the other *aliquid*. These participles and adjectives he traces in the modern and the antient languages, in the Anglo-saxon and in our present tongue. He arranges the Anglo-saxon participles according to their formation, whether by the addition of participle terminations, such as *en*, *ed*, and *t*, or by changes of the characteristic letters, that is of the letters which precede the infinitive termination. The bulk of the work being thus occupied, the remaining part of it is devoted to inquiries into the nature of nouns adjective, and into the properties and character of participles.—If, in the last two chapters, fewer brilliances flash on us than in those which precede them, we have continually reason to admire the extraordinary sagacity and sound judgment which are displayed by the author in his investigations.

In the second chapter, those words are alone considered, of which the etymology may be found in the antient and foreign languages. At the commencement of the dialogue, the pupil says:

'Is this manner of explaining RIGHT and JUST and LAW and DROIT and DRITTO peculiarly applicable to those words only, or will it apply to others? Will it enable us to account for what is called *Abstraction*, and for *abstract ideas*, whose existence you deny?

'H. I think it will: and, if it must have a name, it should rather be called *subaudition* than *abstraction*; though I mean not to quarrel about a title.

'The terms you speak of, however denominated in construction, are generally (I say *generally*) Participles or Adjectives used without any Substantive to which they can be joined; and are therefore, in *construction*, considered as Substantives.

'An *Act* — (aliquid) *Act*-um.
A *Fact* — (aliquid) *Fact*-um
A *Debt* — (aliquid) *Debit*-um.
Rent — (aliquid) *Rendit*-um. redditum.

Tribute

Tribute — (aliquid) *Tribut*-um.
An *Attribute* — (aliquid) *Attribut*-um.
Incense — (aliquid) *Incens*-um.
An *Expanse* — (aliquid) *Expans*-um, &c.

'Such words compose the bulk of every language. In English, those which are borrowed from the Latin, French, and Italian, are easily recognized; because those languages are sufficiently familiar to us and not so familiar as our own: those from the Greek are more striking; because more unusual: but those which are original in our own language have been almost wholly overlooked, and are quite unsuspected.'

The pupil then adopts this principle, and produces many instances in proof of its justice.

In the third chapter, the author treats of those words of which the roots are English or Anglo-saxon; and those which he examines are chiefly participles formed by the terminations *ed*, *t*, and *en*. A few adjectives, similarly terminated, enjoy the rank of substantives. In the antient English and the Saxon, the participles are seen to be very similar to our modern substantives in sound, and nearly so in the spelling. From a few specimens, the reader will discern the views of the author, and become acquainted with his manner of supporting them:

'ODD—Is the participle *Owed, Ow'd*. Thus, when we are counting by couples or by pairs; we say—One pair, two pairs, &c. and one *Owed, Ow'd*, to make up another pair. It has the same meaning when we say—An ODD man, or an ODD action: it still relates to *pairing*; and we mean—without a fellow, *unmatched*, not such another, one *Owed* to make up a couple.

"So thou that hast thy loue sette unto God,
In thy rembraunce this emprint and graue,
As he in soueraine diguitie is ODDE,
So will he in loue no parting felowes haue."
Sir T. More's Workes. *Rules of Picus*, pag. 28.

'HEAD—Is *Heaved, Heav'd*, the past participle of the verb *To Heave:* (As the Anglo-saxon ȝeapoð was the past participle of ȝeapan) meaning that part—(of the body—or, any thing else) which is *Heav'd, raised*, or *lifted up*, above the rest.

'In Edward the third's time, it was written *Heved*.

"And I say an other strong aungel comyng down fro *Heuene*, keuerid or clothid with a cloude, and the reyn bow in his *Heued*.
Apocalips. Chap. 10. Verse 1.)

"The *Heuedes* of holy churche, and they holy were,
Christe calleth hem salt."
Vision of P. Ploughman. fol. 84. pag. 1.

"Persons and priests that *Heueds* of holy kyrke ben."
Vision of P. Ploughman. passus 16, fol. 84. pag. 2.

'WILD

'WILD—is *Willed, Will'd* (or self-willed) in opposition to those (whether men or beasts) who are tamed or subdued (by reason or otherwise) to the will of others or of Societies.

'FLOOD—is *Flowed*, Flow'd.

"And sens it rayned, and al was in a FLOODE."
Troylus. boke 3. fol. 176. p. 1. col. 1.'

'FIELD.—This word, by Alfred, Gower, Chaucer, &c. was always written ꝼeld, *Feld.* It is merely the past participle *Felled, Fell'd*, of the verb *To Fell*, (ꝼællan, Be-ꝼælan): and is so universally written *Feld* by all our old authors, that I should be ashamed to produce you many instances. FIELD-*land* is opposed to *Wood-land*; and means——Land where the trees have been *Felled.*

"In woodes, and in FELDS eke,
Thus robbery goth to seke
Where as he maie his purchas finde,
And robbeth mens goodes aboute
In woode and FELDE, where he goth oute."
Gower. lib. fol. 116. pag. 2. col. 2.

"In woode, in FELDE, or in citee,
Shall no man stele in no wise."
Gower. lib. 5. fol. 122. pag. 1. col. 1.

"Maple, thorne, beche, ewe, hasel, whipulere,
Howe they were FELDE shal not be told for me."
Chaucer *Knyghtes Tale.* fol. pag. 2. col. 2.

"My blysse and my myrthe arne FELDE, sickenesse and sorrowe ben alwaye redy."
Testament of Loue. boke 1. fol. 306. pag. 2. col. 1.

'In the collateral languages, the German, the Dutch, the Danish and the Swedish, you will find the same correspondence between the equivalent verb and the supposed substantive.

German *Fellen*	—	*Feld.*
Dutch *Vellen*	—	*Veld.*
Danish *Fælder*	—	*Felt.*
Swedish *Falla*	—	*Felt.*

'CUD—To chew the CUD, i. e. To chew the *Chew'd.* This change of pronunciation, and consequently of writing, from CH to K and from K to CH, is very common and frequent in our language; and you will have more than one occasion hereafter to notice what obscurity, difficulties, and errors it has caused to our etymologists.'

Thus the word *blind, blined, blin'd*, he tells us, is the past participle of the old English verb to *blin*, (A. S. *Blinnan*) to stop;—and *Bread* is the past participle of the verb to *bray* (French *Broyer*,) i. e. to pound, or to beat to pieces; and the *subauditum* is corn, or grain, or any other substance.

Mr. Tooke here takes occasion to expose certain alterations that have been wantonly made in the text of Shakspeare, and to vindicate the original reading; which he effects in his usual superior

superior manner, while he treats the critics with his accustomed severity:

'The first Folio, in my opinion, is the only edition worth regarding. And it is much to be wished, that an edition of Shakspeare were given *literatim* according to the first Folio: which is now become so scarce and dear, that few persons can obtain it. For, by the presumptuous licence of the dwarfish commentators, who are for ever cutting him down to their own size, we risque the loss of Shakspeare's genuine text; which that Folio assuredly contains; notwithstanding some few slight errors of the press, which might be noted, without altering.'

A faulty emendation of our great bard leads Mr. T. to his very ingenious explanations of the words *it* and *that*. He observes that *it* is written *hit* in our old writers; and, alluding to one of his opponents (the learned Dr. Burgess, Bishop of St. David's,) who has the good fortune to be treated with much respect by him, he continues thus:

'I must suppose that when he had noticed innumerable such instances, he would then have gone still farther back, to our original language: and there he would have found this same word written hit, hyt, and hæt: which might perhaps, have plainly discovered to him, that this pronoun was merely the past participle of the verb HAITAN hætan, nominare. And, upon application, he would have found this meaning, viz, nominatum i. e. *The Said*, perfectly to correspond with every use of the word IT in our language. Having observed this, he would have smiled at our grammatical arrangements; and would not have been in the least shocked to find (as he would often find) the word IT used in the following manner,

"The greate kynge, IT whiche Cambyses
Was hote."

Gower. lib. 7. fol. 158. pag. 1. col. 1.

"When King Arthur had seene them doe all this, hee asked Sir Launcelot what were those knights and that queene. Sir, said Launcelot, I cannot shew you no certaintie, but if Sir Tristram, or Sir Palomides. Wit yee well of a certaine IT beene they and la beale I sond." *Historie of Prince Arthur.* 3d part. chap. 98.

'For he would be well aware, that IT, (or *The Said*) is (like all our other participles) as much masculine as feminine, and as plurally applicable as singularly. And from this small inlet, perhaps, (if from no other quarter) the nature of all the other pronouns might instantly have rushed upon his mind, and have enabled him to perform satisfactorily his contract with the public.

'F. I have often remarked, amongst all our old writers, a similar use of the word THAT; which, as well as IT, is applied by them indifferently to plural nouns and to singular. For instance; in that *Traictise* you have quoted, by Dr. Martin, (who wrote accurately and

and was no mean scholar) we meet with such sentences as the following;

"Patrones elected many into THAT holy ordres, nether of age, nor of learnyng, nor of discretion, woorthie to take so high a function." pag. 2.

"The temporall menne at THAT dayes did much extolle and mayntaine chastitie." pag. 47.

"The midwife, christenying the child, added not THAT solemne wordes, nor any man promised the same for him." pag. 113.

"There was a statute or ii deuyſed to take away THAT peines of the church, that were before alwayies ordenied and used against maried priestes." pag. 140.

"To the entente they might the more fully and frely repose them selues in THAT unspeakable joyes with which Christe feedethe them." pag. 284.

So, in the *Hist. of Prince Arthur.* 3d part. chap. 98.

"And so three of them were come home againe, THAT were Sir Gawaine, Sir Ector, and Sir Lionell."

Sir Tho. More uses it in the same manner.

"This pleasure undoubtedly farre excelleth all THAT pleasures that in this life maie be obteined." *Life of Picus.* pag. 12.

"THAT euyll aungels the deuilles." Pag. 386 of his workes.

'Now I have always hitherto supposed this to be a careless and vicious manner of writing in our antient authors; but I begin to suspect that they were not guilty of any false concord in this application of the word. When treating formerly of the *Conjunctions*, I remember, you left THAT unexplained. I thought it not very fair at the time; and you gave but a poor reason for the omission. Will you oblige me now, by informing me whether you think the etymology and meaning of THAT will justify this antient use of the word?

'H. In my mind, perfectly. For THAT (in the Anglo-saxon Ðæt, i. e. Ðeað, Ðeaт) means *Taken, Assumed;* being merely the past participle of the Anglo-saxon verb Ðean, Ðeȝan, Ðion, ϕIhΛN, Ðicȝan, Ðiȝian, sumere, assumere, accipere; to THE, to *Get*, to *Take*, to *Assume*.

"Ill mote he THE
That caused me
To make myselfe a frere."
Sir T. More's Workes. page 4.

'IT and THAT always refer to some thing or things, person or persons, *Taken, Assumed*, or *Spoken of* before; such only being the meaning of those two words. They may therefore well supply each other's place: as we say indifferently, and with the same meaning, of any action mentioned in discourse; either—"IT is a good action;" or, "THAT is a good action;" i. e. *The Said* (action) is a good action; or, *The Assumed* (action) is a good action; or, The action, *Received* in discourse, is a good action.

'THE (our *Article*, as it is called) is the Imperative of the same verb Ðean: which may very well supply the place of the correspondent Anglo-saxon article ꝥe, which is the Imperative of ꝥeon, videre:

for

for it answers the same purpose in discourse, to say—*See* man, or, *Take* man. For instance;

" THE man THAT hath not musicke inn himselfe
Is fit for treasons." &c. Or,
THAT man is fit for treasons," &c.

TAKE man (or SEE man;) TAKEN man hath not musicke, &c. SAID man, or TAKEN man is fit for treasons, &c.

' This analysed method of speech must, I know, seem strange and aukward to you at first mention; but try it repeatedly, as I have done for years; apply this meaning frequently on every occasion where THE and THAT are used in the language; and I fear not your conviction. But if the experiment should fail, and leave you in the smallest doubt, we will then enter farther into the subject: for we must hereafter return to it.'

Having in the last chapter employed himself on the words which are formed from participles and adjectives ending in *d*, *t*, and *n*, the author next examines the derivations of those participles which are formed by a change of the characteristic letters; or those which precede the infinitive terminations *an* or *gan*, *can* or *gean*, *ian* or *gian*, as *i* or *y*, which are changed into the broad *a*, *o*, or *u*, and in more recent times into *ou*, *oa*, *oo*, or *ai*. The characteristic letters *e* and *a*, and the diphthongs *ai*, *œ*, *eo*, *ii*, *ea*, *io*, also undergo similar alterations, and supply a very large proportion of the nouns substantive in our language.

In tracing the etymology of the phrase *scot* and *lot*, it is said by the author to have been

' A great mistake, into which both the Italian and Latin etymologists have fallen, to suppose that all the Italian must be found in the Latin, and all the Latin in the Greek: for the fact is otherwise. The bulk and foundation of the Latin language is Greek; but great part of the Latin is the language of our northern ancestors, grafted upon the Greek. And to our northern language the etymologist must go, for that part of the Latin which the Greek will not furnish: and there, without any twisting or turning or ridiculous forcing and torturing of words, he will easily and clearly find it. We want therefore the testimony of no historians to conclude that the founders of the Roman state and of the Latin tongue came not from Asia, but from the North of Europe. For the language cannot lye. And from the language of every nation we may with certainty collect its origin. In the same manner; even though no history of the fact had remained; and though another Virgil and another Dionysius had again, in verse and prose, brought another Æneas from another Troy to settle modern Italy, after the destruction of the Roman government; yet, in spite of such false history, or silence of history, we should be able, from the modern language of the country (which cannot possibly lye) to conclude with certainty that our northern ancestors had again made another successful irruption into Italy, and again grafted their own language upon the Latin,

as before upon the Greek. For all the Italian, which cannot be easily shewn to be Latin, can be easily shewn to be our Northern language.

'It would therefore, I believe, have been in some degree useful to the learned world, if the present system of this country had not by a

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that virtuous and harmless good man, Mr. Gilbert Wakefield. For he had, shortly before his death, agreed with me to undertake, in conjunction, a division and separation of the Latin tongue into two parts: placing together in one division all that could be clearly shewn to be Greek; and in the other division, all that could be clearly shewn to be of Northern extraction. And I cannot forbear mentioning to you this circumstance; not to revive your grief for the loss of a valuable man who deserved

but because, he being dead and I speedily to follow him, you may perhaps excite and encourage some other persons more capable to execute a plan, which would be so useful to your favourite etymological amusement. I say, *you* must encourage them: for there appears no encouragement in this country at present

which swarm amongst us as numerously as our volunteers

with this advantage, that none of the former

are ever rejected on account of their principles.'

More of *politics* occurs, but we may be excused from quoting it. We entertain a high opinion of the memory of the person here named, but we do not think that he was so *blameless* as he is represented by Mr. Tooke. Feeling much respect for the author and for him in their several lines, we do not regard them as infallible in affairs of state and government; and, as far as it respects Mr. Tooke, we can support this opinion from passages in the volume before us. Though all that it contains, even the political matter, seems to have been very carefully weighed, and elaborately and pointedly as it is expressed, we must be allowed to regard it, in the connection in which it appears, as so much rubbish which is not only inconvenient, but even offensive. To make an invaluable literary performance the vehicle of private spleen and rancour is an impropriety which none would more sensibly feel, and more loudly censure, than the author himself, in any other case than his own. It is indeed lamentable to discover that a mind so superior, and so accomplished, should be so much under the dominion of the bad passions, as to be guilty of a violation of decorum which happily is not less rare than it is inexcusable.

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* Mr. Tooke thus leaves blanks for the words and sentences which 'the fears of his printer' do not permit him to express.

It

It is here positively asserted that the founders of the Roman state came from the north of Europe, and not from Asia, because it is said that language connot lie. We are not disposed to dispute this account of their origin: but we have some doubts whether the evidence, founded on the circumstance of there being several terms common to both languages, is so conclusive as it is here represented. Which was the borrowing language? The Goths at an earlier period, and the tribe of them denominated Saxons at a later, had maintained much intercourse with the Romans before their several dialects were committed to writing; and it will scarcely be doubted, then, that these barbarous tongues were enriched in consequence of this commerce. The Goths had long served as mercenaries in the Roman armies, and the Saxons were converted to Christianity by Roman priests. He must be a hardy disputant indeed, and wedded in no ordinary degree to system, who, when he reflects on these circumstances, will assert that the northern dialects borrowed nothing from the Roman at the period of which we are speaking.

An old English or Anglo-saxon verb is often the prolific parent of a large family, between the individuals of which we trace little resemblance either in sound or sense, though it be demonstrable that they have all one common origin. Of the numerous specimens of this sort with which this volume abounds, our limits will only permit us to allude to one or two:

'SHEER
SHERD
SHRED
SHORE and SCORE
SHORT
SHORN
SHOWER
SHARE and SCAR
SHARD
SHIRE
SHIRT and SKIRT

All these, so variously written and pronounced; and now so differently and distinctly applied; are yet merely the past participle of ſcinan, *To Shear*, to cut, to divide, to separate. And they were formerly used indifferently.'

'TALL
TOLL
TOOL
TOIL
TAILLE

All these words, as well as TILT, however different they may at first sight appear, are all one word, with one meaning; and are the past participle of the Anglo-saxon verb tilian, *To Liſt up, To Till.*'

In the same manner, *Town*, *Tun*, and *Ten* are the past participles of the A. S. verb Tynan, to inclose, the one inclosing *houses*, the second *liquor*, and the third *numbers*. The reflections cast, in these parts of the discussion and elsewhere, against

against Dr. Johnson, can only injure the author. If the literary giant, being ignorant of the antient northern dialects, was consequently a bad etymologist, and if he be chargeable with very considerable failings, still he has left behind him a reputation which contemptuous sneers, though conveyed in the most ingenious work of the age, in vain attempt to reach.

We have observed that the author traces words the most dissimilar to one common stock, and this in a way that falls little short of demonstration; thus *Bough*, *bay*, and *buxom* come from the same root; *rogue*, *array*, and *rigor*, *rigid*; *shoulder* and *shilling*; *brook* and *breeches*; *room* and *brim*; *stage*, *stag*, *stairs*, *stony*, *stye*, and *stirrup*; *stride* and *yesterday*; *lace* and *luck*; *wages*, *keg*, and *key*; *grave* and *grotto*; and also *hell*, *heel*, and *hall*.

In the fifth chapter, Mr. Tooke treats of another source of abstract terms; or another method, as he expresses it, of shortening communication by artificial substantives; or instances in which one word stands for a whole sentence: the word used for this purpose being the present indicative of a verb. At the head of this class of terms, is placed *Truth*; part of the author's account of which we shall submit to our readers, as highly worthy of their attention:

'Like the other words, TRUE is also a past participle of the verb ΤΚΛΠΛΝ, Tneopan, confidere, to think, to believe firmly, to be thoroughly persuaded of, *To Trow*.

'Marke it, Nuncle.
Haue more then thou showest,
Speak lesse then thou knowest,
Lend lesse then thou owest,
Ride more then thou goest,
Learne more then thou TROWEST." *Lear*. pag. 288.

'This past participle was antiently written TREW: which is the regular past tense of TROW. As the verbs *To Blow*, to *Crow*, to *Grow*, to *Know*, to *Throw*, give us in the past tense, *Blew*, *Crew*, *Grew*, *Knew*, *Threw*. Of which had the learned Dr. Gill been aware, he would not, in his *Logonomia Anglica*, pag. 64. have told us that TRU, ratus, was "verbale *anomalum* of I TROU, reor."

'Of this I need not give you any instances; because the word is perpetually written TREW, by all our antient authors in prose and verse, from the time of Edward the third to Edward the sixth.

'TRUE, as we now write it; or TREW, as it was formerly written; means simply and merely—That which is TROWED. And, instead of its being a rare commodity upon earth; except only in words, there is nothing but TRUTH in the world.

'That every man, in his communication with others, should speak that which he TROWETH, is of so great importance to mankind; that it ought not to surprize us, if we find the most extravagant and ex-

aggerated praises bestowed upon TRUTH. But TRUTH supposes mankind: *for whom* and *by whom* alone the word is formed, and *to whom* only it is applicable. If no man, no TRUTH. There is therefore no such thing as eternal, immutable, everlasting TRUTH; unless mankind *such as they are at present*, be also eternal, immutable, and everlasting. Two persons may contradict each other, and yet both speak TRUTH: for the TRUTH of one person may be opposite to the TRUTH of another.'

The substantive *truth* is the third person singular of the indicative *trow*. It was formerly written *Troweth*, *Trowth*, *Trouth*, and *Troth*; and it means—(aliquid, any thing, something) that which one *troweth*, i. e. thinketh or firmly believeth.

In like manner we have *Girth*—that which girdeth, gird'th, girth. *Warmth*—that which warmeth. *Health*—that which healeth or maketh one to be hale or whole. *Mirth*—that which dissipateth, viz. care, sorrow, from the A.S. verb Myrrau, to scatter, &c. *Growth*—the third person of *to grow*. *Birth*—the third person of *to bear*. *Sloth*—that which sloweth, or maketh one slow, from the A.S. verb Slawian. *Mouth*—that which eateth, from the A.S. verb Mitian, *edere*. *Smith*—one who smiteth. Antiently this word was applied to all who smite with a hammer, including carpenters as well as those who were employed in working metals. The French appellation, *carpenter*, was not in general use in the reign of Edward III.

We have now reached the close of the etymological part of this volume; and having given to it the best consideration of which we are able, we are fully satisfied that the author has established his hypothesis:—indeed, we complain rather of a redundance than of a want of proofs. It is not without surprize that we find the similarity, in almost every instance, so great between the stock and its scions, and the variations so satisfactorily explained. Had the author prefixed to his disquisitions more general observations on etymology,—descanted on the manner in which accident, caprice, and association combine to affect it,—and shewn how words are formed from fragments of other words, from compounds, and from whole sentences,—had he attended to convertible letters and syllables, and to transpositions,—he would have considerably shortened his labours, and have rendered less of reasoning and fewer examples requisite in the particular cases.

If in the chapter which treats of Adjectives we meet not with so much novelty as in those which precede it, we every where perceive that, on each head of grammar, the author leaves all his predecessors far behind; and if no discovery gives interest to this part of the subject, it is enriched with some original observations, which are both striking and practically important.

ant. The true doctrine respecting adjectives is contained in the following propositions, which are here inserted from former grammarians:

Adjective imports the general notion of *pertaining to.* (Wilkins.)

Adjectivum respectivum nihil aliud est quam ipsa vox substantiva, *adjectivè posita.* (Wallis.)

Quodlibet substantivum adjectivè positum degenerat in adjectivum. (Ib.)

Ex substantivis fiunt adjectiva copiæ addita terminatione y, &c. (Ib.)

Mr. Tooke classes adjectives as among the most convenient abbreviations used in language, but not as essential to it; and he therefore does not reckon them among the parts of speech. He observes that the Mohegan, a language very general among the Indian natives of North America, is wholly without adjectives.

A curious occurrence in the history of our language is stated with great distinctness and precision, and accompanied by an important observation, in the following passage:

'The same word is not sometimes an Adjective and sometimes a Substantive. But it is true that some languages have such defects, that, for want of an adjective distinction to some of their terms, they are forced to attribute the term itself without any adherent intimation of its attribution. Which defect (viz. the want of an *adjective* termination) was, I suppose, originally the case with all terms in the rude state of all languages: and this defect still continues most in the most imperfect and unimproved languages. The want of an *adjective* termination to the signs of ideas, is more easily borne in languages where the *added* sign is closely joined to the sign which it is intended to accompany. But, without an *adjective* termination, all transposition would be excluded: and therefore the transposed languages are never so deficient in this respect, as the others. In English, instead of *adjectiving* our own substantives, we have borrowed, in immense numbers, *adjectived* signs from other languages; without borrowing the *unadjectived* signs of those same ideas: because our authors frequently found they had occasion for the former, but not for the latter. And, not understanding the nature of language, or the nature of the very benefit they were receiving; they did not, as they might and should have done, improve their own language by the same contrivance within itself; but borrowed from other languages abbreviations ready made to their hands.'

Thus, while the substantives are English, as *boy*, *man*, *woman*, *mind*, *birth*, *life*, &c. the adjectives are of foreign origin, as *infantine*, *puerile*, *virile*, *human*, *female*, *feminine*, *mental*, *natal*, *vital*, &c.

'The

'The adoption of such words as these, was indeed a benefit and an improvement of our language; which however would have been much better and more properly obtained by *adjectiving* our own words. For, as the matter now stands, when a poor foreigner has learned all the names of things in the English tongue, he must go to other languages for a multitude of the *adjectived* names of the *same things*. And even an unlearned native can never understand the meaning of one quarter of that which is called his native tongue.'

The case in fact bears the hardest on the unlearned native; because most foreigners, who have occasion to acquire our language, are acquainted with the Latin, to which our imported adjectives are ultimately to be traced.

On the subject of participles, Mr. Tooke observes that originally the English language was confined to two, but that our authors have since borrowed four more from other languages; they proceeded in regard to new participles just as they did in regard to new adjectives; they did not abbreviate their own vernacular words in imitation of what had been done in foreign dialects, but adopted the terms themselves from other languages; and thus again is the stranger, who learns our verbs, obliged to seek the meaning of our participles in other tongues.

We have, says Mr. T., the same occasion to connect the verb with a noun, as a noun with a noun,—or, as he expresses it, to *adjective* the verb, as to adjective the noun: the one and the other are effected by terminations. Not only may the simple verb, he observes, be adjectived, but every mood and every tense of the verb are capable of and actually undergo the same transmutation. Moods and tenses are themselves abbreviations; they are simply the circumstances of time and manner added to the verb. As the English has few of these modal and temporal abbreviations, it is impossible that it should contain the secondary abbreviations, or those which consist of moods and tenses made into participles.

Mr. Tooke states, after Perizonius, that the participle has all that the noun adjective possesses, and something more, because the verb has something more than the noun. Every verb has a sense of its own, distinct from manner and time.—Since the participle bears the same relation to a substantive that an *adjectived* noun bears, he proposes that the participle should be called a verb adjective. As case, gender, and number are no parts of the noun, but merely circumstances which frequently attend it, and in some languages are expressed by signs which have coalesced with the noun; so mood, tense, number, and person, are no parts of the verb, but circumstances which frequently accompany it, and which in the same manner in some languages are expressed by signs which have coalesced with it.

The proper application of these coalesced words to nouns has been called *declension*, and to verbs *conjugation*. As the noun adjective signifies all that the unadjectived noun imports, so is the signification of the verb adjective commensurate with that of the unadjectived verb.

The English verbs adjective are here reckoned to be six; the simple verb adjective, two adjective tenses, and three adjective moods:

The simple verb adjective; or the indicative present adjective.

The past tense active adjective.

The future tense active adjective.

The potential mood active adjective.

The potential mood passive adjective.

The official mood passive adjective.

The present indicative participle, as it has been hitherto called, the author denies to have any relation to manner and time; he therefore denominates it simple verb adjective; and its termination is *ing*, as liv-*ing*.

The past tense active adjective is obtained by adding *ed* or *en* to the past tense: but such is the imperfection of our language, that, in the same manner as the noun is often used adjectively without a termination, so is the past tense used adjectively without any addition to it.

Of the future tense active adjective we have very few instances in the English language; *future*, *venture*, and *adventure* form the whole catalogue. The author wishes that a long arm were made, and that this family were increased by transfers fom the Latin.

The potential mood active adjective has its termination either in *ive*, or *ic*; as *operative*, *imperative*, *lucrative*, &c. and *energetic*, *specific*, *soporific*, &c.

The potential mood passive adjective has its termination in *ble*, as *amiable*, *affable*, &c.

In our language, however, words occur which terminate in *ble*, as *agreeable*, *amicable*, &c. which have no passive signification; and the author gives a very learned and ingenious account of their introduction.

We have also very few words that range under the head of the official mood passive adjective; *legend*, *prebend*, *reverend*, *dividend*, *memorandum*, are all that the author enumerates.

It has been a matter of dispute among critics, whether our language has been the more benefited or injured by the additions which have been made to it in modern times. This point, however, Mr. Tooke with the utmost facility decides in the most satisfactory manner. He inquires what the additions

tions have been, and investigates their nature. The language, he tells us, has not much increased its stock of complex terms; nor does he regard such acquisition as worthy of being coveted. Our antient tongue, he says, was very destitute of abbreviations in the manner of signification of words; and our early authors, being pressed by this defect, endeavoured to remedy it. They perceived that other languages were possessed of the abbreviations of which they were in want: they did not stop to consider the nature and origin of them, and the manner of their adoption: they did not give themselves the trouble of investigating the contrivance which was the parent of them, in order to proceed in the same manner with their own language, and by similar methods to procure for it similar conveniences: but they took a much shorter course; they seized the terms themselves, and engrafted them on the discordant stocks of an heterogeneous dialect. The consequence has been that our roots belong to one language, while our derivatives are taken from another; that the defects of our tongue have been supplied at the expence of its uniformity; and that our dialect is a medley rather than a language. For having supplied the defects of our language, we are unquestionably highly obliged to our predecessors: but had they effected this in a more scientific manner, had they deduced the improvements from their original stock, had these been made to grow out of the proper materials, and had the artists consulted the genius and uniformity of the language in the additions which they were making to it, the obligations would have been of a higher nature, and would have intitled the benefactors to warmer acknowlegements. The present author is of opinion that the Greeks and Romans were not aware of the advantages which, in this particular, distinguished their languages.

Mr. Tooke's able decision on this important question being closed, his attentive disciple thus addresses him:

'F. It seems to me that you rather exaggerate the importance of these abbreviations. Can it be of such mighty consequence to gain a little time in communication?

'H. Even that is important. But it rests not there. A short close, and compact method of speech answers the purpose of a map upon a reduced scale: it assists greatly the comprehension of our understanding: and, in general reasoning, frequently enables us, at one glance, to take in very numerous and distant important relations and conclusions, which would otherwise totally escape us. But this objection comes to me with an ill grace from you, who have expressed such frequent nausea and disgust at the any-lengthian Lord with his numerous strings, that excellent political swimmer, whose tedious reasons, you have often complained are as—"two grains of wheat hid in two bushels of chaffe."

'And here, if you please, we will conclude our discussion for the present.

'F No. If you finish thus, you will leave me much unsatisfied; nor shall I think myself fairly treated by you.

'You have told me that a *Verb* is (as every word also must be) a *Noun*: but you added, that it is also *something more*: and that the title of *Verb* was given to it, on account of that distinguishing *something more* than the mere nouns convey. You have then proceeded to the simple *Verb adjectived*, and to the different *adjectived Moods*, and to the different *adjectived Tenses* of the verb. But you have not all the while explained to me what you mean by the naked simple *Verb unadjectived*. Nor have you uttered a single syllable concerning that *something* which the naked verb unattended by *Mood*, *Tense*, *Number*, *Person*, and *Gender*, (which last also some languages add to it) signifies *More* or *Besides* the mere Noun.

'What is the *Verb?* What is that peculiar differential circumstance which, added to the definition of a Noun, constitutes the *Verb?*'

How bold is it on the part of the author thus to terminate? Will no philosopher anticipate the discovery which the sage of Wimbledon refuses as yet to impart to the world? Does the problem baffle the sagacity of every man but one? The challenge is singular in the history of letters.—Has he alone the clue in the labyrinth of Grammar, and are the mysteries of the temple known exclusively to him? He is inexorable to the pressing entreaty of his docile attendant:

'We will leave of here, (he says,) for the present. It is true that my evening is now fully come, and the night fast approaching; yet, if we shall have a tolerably lengthened twilight, we may still perhaps find time enough for a farther conversation on this subject: And finally, (if the times will bear it) to apply this system of Language to all the different systems of Metaphysical (i. e. verbal) Imposture.'

Most cordially do we wish that the twilight may be long and cheering; and that the hierophant may survive the quinquennium, and live to take again the aspiring candidate by the hand, in order to dismiss him an epopt. We are less anxious to learn the Roman and Greek mysteries, than to penetrate the arcana which are to effect so entire a revolution in human knowlege as is here intimated. Are we to understand Mr. Tooke as condemning all the existing metaphysics; and that he makes no distinction between Aristotle and Locke, between Reid and Hartley? Is etymology to prove that the great law of association is a dream, that the factitious nature of the passions is an invention, and that the influence of motives is a baseless theory? We do not anticipate changes to this extent, nor suppose that we shall expel Locke, Hartley, and Stewart from

from our foremost shelves, and lodge them with the schoolmen and the logicians. Be the consequences, however, what they may, the ingenious author may rely on every attention from us, that is due to services so pre-eminent in their kind as his undoubtedly are; and that we shall cheerfully pay him that deference which we owe to one who so far excels all other grammarians: who, though he may not boast of all the lore which some critics may have amassed, has established a superiority on the basis of skill and judgment, as marked and decisive as ever distinguished the proudest names in the republic of letters. It is probable that we shall not widely err, if we assert that, of all the discoveries of this age, those of our author are most creditable to human sagacity and ingenuity. If he has been proscribed civil distinctions, and if it has been denied to him to become, like Lord Bacon, the head of the law, his name will descend to posterity as having rendered services to human knowlege not less brilliant than those of the philosophical chancellor. In the farther prosecution of his present inquiries, not only is his country but the cause of letters most materially interested; and we trust that he will live to do justice to his own fame, and to fulfil the expectations of the scholars of every nation. Be his politics ever so objectionable, we own that, were we his sovereign, we should think ourselves honoured by protecting him; and we should have his statue placed among those of the great men who did honour to our reign.

It is of the general doctrines of these volumes that we would be understood as speaking; some criticisms on particulars we intended to have introduced: we had also designed to have made a few observations on the nature and limits of the benefits which language can derive from etymology, and to have adverted to others of the more important concomitant causes which affect its nature and qualities: but this article is already extended to a size which exceeds its due proportion. We had proposed, likewise, to have animadverted on one or two of the more gross of the political effusions with which Mr. Tooke has chosen to deform his pages: but we wish to take our leave of him under the impressions so honourable to him, and so pleasing in themselves, which have been called forth by an impartial review of his literary labours and services. We can scarcely forbear, however, from asking where was that sagacity which analyzed the indeclinable parts of speech, which discovered the true theory of grammar, which traced with such precision the formation of our language, and which so fully laid open the contrivances to which the most finished dialects owe their superiority,—we say, where was this matchless discernment, when an invidious comparison between the present

epoch and the reign of Athelstan escaped the pen of the author? Disappointment corrodes his heart. Why should it? His name will be in frequent mention, when those of the men whom he envies shall have been long consigned to oblivion:—but we are told that he undervalues the immortality of fame. Thus it is; that when we are secure of that which is most rare, we estimate it as of little value, and sigh only for that which is more common and which we know is destined to elude our grasp. *Jo.*

ART. X. *Specimens of Scarce Translations of the Seventeenth Century, from the Latin Poets.* To which are added Miscellaneous Translations from the Greek, Spanish, Italian, &c. By Robert Walpole, Esq., B. A. of Trinity College, Cambridge. 12mo. pp. 176. 4s. Boards. Mawman.

WE have more than once adverted to the extreme difficulty of executing a translation which may preserve the spirit and beauties of the original, without the addition of extraneous ideas, and at the same time without sacrificing the idioms and the elegance of the substituted language. When successful attempts of this kind occur to the observation of the scholar, it is his duty to record them as literary curiosities, and as models for future essayists in the same arduous department of letters. In the present collection, the examples have much more merit than we are apt to ascribe to the age in which they were written, and consequently deserve to be rescued from the total oblivion which was fast overtaking them.

The subjects are Byblis and Caunus, from Ovid, translated by Oldham; Ovid, Eleg. 1. 2. by Creech; Horace, Ode 1. 4. Supposed by the Earl of Rochester; The Phœnix of Claudian, in French, by Motin; Ovid, Eleg. 1. 9. Supposed by the Earl of Rochester; Horace, Ode 1. 3. in French, by Du Perron; Ovid, Epist. 10. Anonymous; Ovid, Eleg. 3. 4. by Sir C. Sedley; Ovid, Epist. 1. in French, by Du Perron; Ovid, Epist. 8. Anonymous; Ovid *de arte amandi*, 1. 681. &c. in French, by the President Nicole; Ode from Gallus, by Cotton; Martial, book 8 epigr. 77, by B. Jonson; Ovid, Trist. 3. 3. by Vaughan; Lines from Claudian's Rape of Proserpine, in French, by the President Nicole; Tarquin and Lucretia, from Ovid's Fasti, by Creech; Epigram ascribed to Virgil, in French, by Pierre de Mouchault; and an epistle from Aulus Sabinus, by an anonymous writer.

The sources whence these specimens have been extracted, and which are now of difficult access even to many of the learned, are, a book printed in 1681, containing some original performances,

ances, by Oldham; a collection of miscellaneous poems, 1684; *La Cresme des bons vers*, 1622, and giving extracts from the works of Ronsard, Malherbe, and others; a translation of the Epistles of Ovid, by several hands, 1680; *les Oeuvres de Mons. le Président Nicole*, 1661; a Collection of Poems, by Charles Cotton, 1689: '*Olor Iscanus*, a collection of some select poems and translations, written by Mr. Henry Vaughan, Silurist,' 1651; and '*Les Oeuvres de P. Virgile Maro, Prince des Poëtes Latins*,' &c. 1608.

It is not a little remarkable that a rare combination of fidelity, spirit, and easy elegance, characterizes most of the specimens which Mr. Walpole has selected. If, in some instances, the version be unnecessarily diffuse, in others it is extremely close, without partaking of servility. Obsolete expressions very rarely occur: but extreme nicety of rhymes seems not to have been cultivated. Some feeble or harsh lines occasionally mar the harmonious tone of the measure; yet, with a few alterations, a majority of the pieces would reflect credit on the most reputable translators of the present day. The French specimens are chiefly deficient in spirit and conciseness: but they possess an ease and a *naïveté*, which, if they excite not admiration, never fail to please.

The story of Byblis and Caunus has in general suffered little by passing through the hands of Oldham.—A short quotation will exemplify his manner:

"*Spes tamen obscœnas animo dimittere non est*
Ausa suo vigilans. Placida resoluta quiete,
Sæpe videt quod amat. Visa est quoque jungere fratri
Corpus; et erubuit quamvis sopita jacebat.
Somnus abit: silet illa diu; repetitique quietis
Ipsa suæ speciem; dubiaque ita mente profatur."

"Nor dare she yet with waking thoughts admit
A wanton hope; but when returning night
With sleep's soft gentle spell her senses charms,
Kind fancy often brings him to her arms;
In them she oft does the lov'd shadow seem
To grasp, and joys, yet blushes too in dream.
She wakes, and long in wonder silent lies,
And thinks on her late pleasing ecstacies;
Now likes and now abhors her guilty flame,
By turns abandon'd to her love and shame:
At length her struggling thoughts an utt'rance find,
And vent the wild disorders of her mind.'

Oldham, however, is sometimes too paraphrastic. Thus the lines

"*Aut,*

" *Aut, hoc si nequeo, peream precor ante, toroque*
Mortua componar, positæque det oscula frater,"

are feebly expanded into,

'No, let me banish this forbidden fire,
Or quench it with my blood, and with 't expire:
Unstained in honour, and unhurt in fame,
Let the same grave bury my love and shame:
But when at my last hour I gasping lie,
Let only my kind murderer be by;
Let him, while I breathe out my soul in sighs,
Or gaze 't away, look on with pitying eyes:
Let him (for sure he can't deny me this)
Seal my cold lips with one dear parting kiss.'

This last line, which Pope would not have disowned, was worthy of more suitable companions.

After having conveyed the full import of doubt and agitation, which are finely expressed by

" *Incipit; et dubitat; scribit; damnatque tabellas:*
Et notat; et delet; mutat; culpatque, probatque;
Inque vicem sumtas ponit, positasque resumit,"

the translator adds these unmeaning lines;

'Unsteady her resolves, fickle and vain,
No sooner made, but strait unmade again;
What her desires would have she does not know,
Displeas'd with all whate'er she goes to do.'

Similar examples might easily be adduced.—In a few instances, on the contrary, the genuine amount of the sense is either reduced, or aukwardly exhibited. The stanza

'Gods! what a scene of joy was that! how fast
I claspt the vision to my panting breast!'

is not equivalent to the voluptuous ecstacy of the original;

" *Proh Venus, et tenera volucer cum matre Cupido,*
Gaudia quanta tuli! quam me manifesta libido
Contigit! ut jacui totis resoluta medullis!"

The neatness and felicity of

" *Fer has, fidissime, nostro.*" . . . .
Dixit, et adjecit, post longo tempore. . . . ." *fratri.*"

are miserably exchanged for

" Go carry this with faithful care," she said,
" To my dear ...." there she paused a while, *and staid,*
'And, *by and by,* " brother,"...*was heard to add.*'

A frequent recurrence of incorrect rhymes may be pardoned, on account of the laxity which formerly prevailed in this respect: but *delight* and *great*, *increase* and *disguise*, *meet* and *delight*,

delight, *kiss* and *eyes*, cannot well be tolerated in the small compass of eight successive lines.

To offer particular strictures on the shorter passages would carry us beyond proper limits; and we have already noted their general merits. We shall now only add that the two by Creech are distinguished by fidelity and tender simplicity, that the anonymous versions are executed with considerable success, and that Motin's translation of the Dying Phœnix possesses the charms of grace and freedom, without deviating from the meaning or spirit of the original.

Of the smaller poems at the end of the volume, those intitled 'from the Greek' are admitted by Mr. Walpole himself to be *imitations* from the Anthologia: but he has neither inserted nor referred to the originals, having 'scarcely ever noted their places in Jacob's collection;' and he thinks that 'they will easily occur to the mind of the classical reader.' We really wish, however, that he had submitted to the trouble of producing the originals; for so very free and so greatly expanded are these versions, that 'the classical reader' will scarcely recognize them. We shall quote two of them, to illustrate this remark:

'O say what mean those frequent sighs?
Why heaves, my fair, thy sorrowing breast;
Why on each lovely feature rest
Dark clouds of grief, and dim those eyes
With show'rs of sorrow streaming?

'O tell me all; to sooth thy mind
Friendship its aid shall soon impart.
Bid joy again illume thy heart,
With balmy hands thy wounds shall bind,
Each dimpled smile recalling.

'Say, do I ken aright?—The youth.
Who oft, caressing and caress'd,
Upon thy lips the kiss impress'd,
And swore the vows of love and truth,
The sigh impassion'd heaving,....

'Say, hast thou seen his circling arms,
While rapture bade his bosom glow,
And joy's high current madd'ning flow,
Clasp to his heart some fair one's charms,
Thy long-lov'd form unheeding?

'No answer! Yet, too well I guess
Thy grief, and well thy eyes reveal,
And tell, what thou would'st fain conceal,
What jealous pangs thy heart oppress,
Each tortur'd sense inflaming.'—

'*On a Picture of Sappho.*

'Yes, sure 'twas Nature's self who drew
That mien, those features, which I view,
Who thus pourtray'd the Lesbian's form;
I mark her eyes, that seem to rove
Full fraught with fancy and with love,
And sparkling glow with passion warm.
I mark, around her shape and air
What graces play and hover there;
How well the pencil's power has trac'd
The genius of the heaven-born Muse,
And all the charms and roseate hues
That e'er the queen of beauty grac'd.'

The prototype of the former of these will be found, in *six lines*, in Mœcius, *apud Brunck*, II. p. 237. Epigr. III.; and the other, (less diffused) in eight lines, in Democharis, *apud Brunck*, *Analect.* Vol. III. p. 70. IV.—All these pieces are of an amatory complexion, rather too closely bordering on the refined voluptuousness of the new school, yet breathing something of a Grecian air. The first is, perhaps, the most pleasing:

'O would that I were some soft gale
Which fans with perfum'd wing the air,
That from thy lips I might inhale
Each balmy sweet that lingers there,
And drink thy fragrant sighs!

'And would that I were yon red rose
In vernal pride and radiance drest,
That, cull'd by thee, my lively glows
Might grace a while, my fair, thy breast,
And veil its snowy charms!'

The Latin Alcaic stanzas consist of a translation from the first part of the fourteenth *Canzone* of Petrarch, and are certainly intitled to praise. After the finely flowing version, however, of the same passage, by Voltaire, we are not easily reconciled to the kind of measure which is here adopted.

Of Mr. W's translations *into* the Greek language, we shall not here undertake a minute examination. We have often given our opinion of these attempts in general; and Mr. Walpole's attainments in Attic learning were displayed much in detail, in our account of his Fragments of Greek poets, Rev. Vol. 49. N. S. p. 225.

To conclude: in this little volume, of which the contents may to some appear rather trivial, we readily perceive an union of talents, taste, and cla-sical knowlege; and we hear with pleasure that it was undertaken during the hours of relaxation from a performance of a more serious cast.

Muir. ART.

ART. XI. *Dissertations, Essays, and Parallels.* By John Robert Scott, D.D. 8vo. pp. 382. 7s. Boards. Johnson.

IT is stated by the author of this volume that most of the papers which it contains were written several years ago, that some of them were honoured with the first prizes in the University of Dublin, and that they are now submitted to the public in order to ascertain how far the writer may be justified, in bestowing farther labour on other productions which he has in reserve, with a view to the decision of the same tribunal. To us it appears rather singular that he should delegate so many of his juvenile performances to this trial, and so few of his more matured compositions; the reverse of which arrangement would on many accounts have been more proper, would have been dealing more fairly with his judges, and would probably have done himself greater justice. Some of these earlier attempts, however, manifest enough of promise, and his later efforts display sufficient marks of advancement, to warrant the conclusion that he is qualified to appear with repute as an author.

The productions before us, indeed, possess various degrees of merit: but all of them indicate marks of literature, and a turn for thinking. In the Academical exercises, the topics are mostly appropriate, and are in general duly discussed: but it often happens, as might have been expected, that considerations closely connected with the subject are overlooked. The specimens of the labours of the author's riper years possess more decided merit. Through the essay *on the Influence of Taste on Morals*, a train of just reasoning prevails; and the facts, which are decisive of the point in debate, are with great discretion rather intimated than disclosed. This latter circumstance is a feature which will not fail to strike good judges, and to inspire them with favourable prepossessions; it is a proof of a fine *tact*; which, in authorship as well as in many other lines, is a prime requisite to eminent success.

No. 1. of these papers, a Dissertation on the Influence of Religion on Civil Society, is one of those which obtained prizes at the University; and, all circumstances being weighed, it deserves considerable praise. If, however, the author never loses sight of the question, and if the ideas are all pertinent, still their want of precision and *definiteness* betray the youthful writer. The objections which he raises he is for the most part able to refute: but many are never urged which a profound opponent would have been very ready to have introduced; and we meet with more than a solitary instance of that pertness which almost invariably attends us in the spring of life. A caviller would object to the author that it was *superstition*, and not religion which

which lent its aid to form the social union, and assisted the first movements of bodies politic; and an adversary would also contend that, having been auxiliary to society in its early stages, its interference in its farther progress becomes not only unnecessary but pernicious. He might farther maintain that the principles, which impel us to enter into society, would operate to strengthen and cement the union, and dispose us to the partial sacrifices which the preservation of so great a common blessing required; or he would allege that religion, like science, letters, or arts, is only indirectly beneficial to society. We mention these objections not because we disagree in opinion with the writer, but in order to shew that the paper takes but a partial and limited view of the subject. The notions entertained by the author on this topic will appear from what follows. Having attempted to shew that society is unable to realize and render permanent the blessings at which it aims, he observes:

'But notwithstanding these defects are alike striking and unavoidable, yet are they not remediless, the condition of man hopeless; nor has this lord of the creation been slightly provided with the means of happiness by the supreme first cause of all things. For Religion is at hand to assist the cause of Civil Society, well adapted to remedy its defects, to make up for its deficiencies, and to give to its orders, its decrees, and its sanctions, strength, stability, and support. Ensuring to the magistrate the permanency of the state and the obedience of the subject, from the solemn external tie of oaths, and to the people the unmolested enjoyment of their rights from the internal bond of conscience by it imposed; the blessings of security, of peace, and of order, spontaneously spring from Civil Society; which thus, having laid its foundation on the broad basis of public utility and general good, at length hides its aspiring head within the shadow of the throne of the Most High. Religion being now united, and, as it were incorporated with Society, mutual advantages to each flow from their union; as the former is enforced by the temporal punishments of vice and iniquity imposed, for its own society, by the latter; whilst it, in return, is more than doubly repaid for this service by the efficacy of those motives to action which the former makes known, establishes, and applies.

'For holding forth to the virtuous rewards of value immense, and duration infinite, Society receives from this union that aid which its poverty prevented it from bestowing on the deserving; and which, from ignorance of the motives of human actions, it was incapacitated to bestow with justice, had it even possessed the means of rewarding. The fear of divine punishment for villainy and vice, that first and firmest pillar of Society, now combining its force with these rewards, and operating in conjunction with civil sanctions, the two grand principles of political community are called into action; those principles of reward and punishment which all legislators, speculative or practical, have seen to be essential to the well being of the state, but which

which without the aid of Religion, they have ever been unable effectually to establish.

'Indeed when the human mind is once thoroughly impressed with a due sense of Religion, or of the existence, attributes, and providence of the Eternal, sentiments of duty supersede the necessity of civil sanctions, and the virtues of the citizen arise from the character of the man. From his belief of an overruling providence, he feels himself obliged to the duties of (what moralists call) imperfect obligation, those duties so essential to the comfort of life; whilst the actions which laws can neither reach, nor sufficiently enforce, are performed with promptitude and alacrity, having it indelibly impressed on his mind that the law was not made for a man of conscience. As he is convinced that no crimes can be hidden from him to whom the secrets of all hearts are known, hypocrisy, fraud, and deceit, are banished from his conduct, and his most private not less than his most public actions, conformed to the rules of infinite wisdom, purity, and goodness. Called on to take a part in the busy scenes of active life, the dignity of his virtue sheds a lustre on the most exalted station, whilst his conscientious discharge of its functions scatters blessings over the happy land; and in the calmer scenes of sequestered retirement their milder radiance spreads around them a glory which illumines even the obscurity of his retreat.'

Dr. Scott's Dissertation *on the Progress of the Fine Arts* was published some years ago, and was briefly mentioned in our Review, with considerable objections to it in point of style. We know not whether this paper has since undergone any revision, but a second perusal of it has inclined us to a more favourable opinion of its matter.

The former part of the essay *on Writing History* bears the marks of a juvenile production, being composed in a very angry style, and betraying no small share of conceit. In this part, a hideous picture appears prominent; which is intended, as we suppose, to represent a very celebrated historian of our own times. We scruple not to pronounce it a disgrace to the writer. With all its faults, and we have no desire to dissemble or diminish them, we do not hesitate to say that the work, which is here so severely censured, is an honour to our age, as well as one of the proudest literary monuments of which our country can boast. Strangely constituted is that mind which would regard, as an account of the performance in question, an exaggerated statement of its faults. It is very practicable to avoid its errors, but not easy to match the mass of excellence which characterizes it; and we fear that, in this degenerate age, we are not likely soon to witness the appearance of a publication equally valuable and splendid.—The remainder of the paper has little in it that offends, while it abounds with sensible observations. Dr. Scott very properly represents impartiality as the first qualification of an historian: but, should he ever appear

in that character, from the specimen of it with which as a critic he has furnished us, and to which we have just adverted, we suspect that it would not be that in which he would most shine.—Having already recommended the essay on *the Influence of Taste on Morals*, we shall content ourselves with making a few short extracts from it, in order to attract towards it that attention which we think it deserves:

'It is allowed on all hands that the faculty of *Taste*, in the modern sense of that word, is excited in the mind by the contemplation of outward objects through the intervention of our bodily organs: that it is no native and inherent power totally independent of adventitious circumstances, but that its very existence depends on the agency of external objects; in the apprehension, the selection, and the judicious judgment of which its vitality consists. Now the virtues and vices of mankind have no representative forms that strike our organs, and by the impulse thence communicated are enabled to raise pictures of beauty and deformity in the mind; and therefore they cannot affect this faculty of Taste in the same manner, nor in a like degree, as the productions of the arts are confessed to do. Wanting the essential quality that calls forth its energies, that is form, it is utterly impossible for them to rouse or agitate it in that way which the theory we are considering supposes; and therefore it is impossible for it to be so influenced by them as to be induced decidedly and invariably to prefer virtuous to vitious, moral to immoral conduct.'—

'It is to be remembered that the human mind is not a mere mirror, reflecting objects presented to it without agitation, emotion, or passion; but is so constituted, for wise and gracious purposes, as to be strongly moved by the view of external beauty, which rouses feelings, excites emotions, and creates desires, which reason is to regulate and restrain, but cannot root out. And though it is not easy to say from whence several of the mental powers and energies primarily spring, nor whence they derive their actuating principle; it yet seems tolerably clear, from a variety of observations, that the faculty which we denominate *Taste* arises, in the first instance, from some more delicate constitution of the bodily organs; rendering them more acutely sensible than commonly happens to the impressions of external objects, and more vigorously agitated by the impulses of outward forms. Hence independent of all culture, indeed of all reflection, various external objects excite in persons of this organization lively perceptions of pleasure and disgust, to which others of a different frame and constitution are so totally strangers as often to be hardly capable of being convinced of their existence. They are delighted with what is beautiful in the diversified productions of animal and vegetable life, or in the inanimate formations of brute matter; and they are offended with the view of what is unsightly in them: most frequently without being able to assign to themselves any cause for either the one or the other feeling. This is the groundwork, whereon education, cultivation, and observation, diligently and duly applied, raise to its topmost height of excellence the faculty we are considering: and, when thus improved, the elegant and graceful

for me

forms produced by the ministry of the arts become its favourite and adequate object, which it scrutinizes with accuracy and estimates with judgment. But such a bodily conformation as this is manifestly most liable to be ensnared by the seductions of sensual pleasure; which applying itself solely to our corporeal nature must act with much more force and power on systems of such increased irritability, than on those of a grosser and more sluggish make. That enticement, which languidly strikes with a transient impulse the latter, strongly firing with a permanent impression the former: the one being, as it were, a solid mass of inert matter, which leisurely and slowy melts into fusion by the vigorous application of continued heat; the other a magazine of nitrous combustibles, where the smallest spark accidentally falling kindles an instant and wide-spreading conflagration. This implies no defect in the original frame of any of the species, nor is it here intended to insinuate any such; for we have superior principles and more coercive motives, fully equal to the task if duly exerted, given us to direct and govern all our animal feelings; whose vividness may exalt the merit of mind in properly swaying them, but whose less ardent vivacity is, doubtless, more easily regulated. Now as almost all the deviations of man from moral rectitude arise, either immediately or mediately, from the captivating allurements of sensual pleasure, it seems sufficiently obvious that the influence of *Taste*, which evidently depends in the first instance on the keenness of our senses, must be, so far, unfriendly to morals.'—

'It is evidently invidious, and to none more than to us can it be irksome, to enquire how the testimony of experience sanctions the sentiments we have supported; as such an enquiry must incidentally expose characters, on many accounts respectable, in a humiliating and disgraceful light. But though we sincerely reverence the memories of the great patrons of the arts, and of those illustrious artists whose works have immortalized their names; a greater reverence is certainly due to the cause of truth and justice. Now experience, as far as the testimony of history can be depended on, strongly corroborates the pernicious influence that it has been here attempted to shew, the predominant power of Taste has on morals: it almost uniformly recording the persons, who have most eminently distinguished themselves in the patronage or the execution of the arts, as little less notorious for their personal vices. Than the family of Medici, first citizens and then sovereigns of Florence, there can scarcely be pointed out one in the long annals of time more highly possessed of the faculty of taste in its greatest perfection; or who more generously and usefully applied it to the cultivation and encouragement of every art of elegance and of every work of ornament: insomuch that the revival of the arts in Europe, and whatsoever we now enjoy of excellent or admirable in them, is in no small measure owing to the enlightened judgment and the liberal patronage of that deservedly respected house. Yet review the unprejudiced accounts of their lives, the features of which have clearly not been distorted by any perverseness of literature, for from literary men they nor merited nor received such treatment: and you read in them the

narrative of a tissue of crimes each more enormous and flagitious than the other. Nor decency, nor morals nor religion nor any other principle divine or human appearing to rule their actions, but that of gratifying their sensual appetites to the utmost extent. The contemplation of such vices none will deny to be in itself hateful; but doubly so from reflecting what otherwise conspicuous personages have been so shamefully defiled by them.

'From the patrons if now the eye be removed to the professors of the arts, to those distinguished men whose celebrity constitutes an era in the profession, and in whom *Taste* reigned with sway supreme; that same experience, which witnesses so loudly against the morals of the former, will be found to bear as irrefragable testimony against those of the latter. Of them some of the most illustrious are found to have fallen martyrs to their vices in the very flower of their age, before half the thread of life was spun: others involved in such difficulties by their shameless immoralities as all their talents being unable to support them under, reduced them to languish out a miserable existence in penury and infamy: some glorying in their vices to such a degree as apparently to have confounded all ideas of right and wrong in moral conduct; and others so notoriously sacrificing their name and their reputation to the indulgence of even the most odious vices, as to acquire from their practice appellative denominations better known than their names.'

We think that the author has been by no means fortunate in the characters which he has selected for comparison, in the subsequent papers: viz. the parallels between William III. of England and Henry IV of France,—Cardinals Ximenes and Richelieu,—Augustus Cæsar and Louis XIV,—Maximilian de Bethune Duke of Sully and William Pitt Earl of Chatham. Not in any instance do they seem to us happily to pair together, but rather to be united by a strange association of ideas. It is true, however, that in this great law of mind, Hume makes contrast as well as resemblance an operative principle; which may in some measure account for the parallels here introduced. Though the parties are not well assorted, the ingenuity of the author is able to render the descriptions interesting; and they answer the purpose of shewing that he is well qualified for historical researches, and master of a good narrative style.

What characters in history so little resemble each other as those of Sully and William Pitt the first? The likeness, it strikes us, is greater between Maximilian and William Pitt the second. Sully was an able financier, as well as economical; he was also, if we believe his own account, no contemptible war-minister; but fortunately for him he was not often called on the Theatre of War, while unfortunately for our grand pilot, and for his country, *he* had large experience on it. In alluding to the good, the honest, the patriotic Sully, Dr. Scott does not take no-

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tite of the effect of his own Memoirs in reducing the monarch, and magnifying the minister; yet if we readily absolve the upright favourite of Henry from conscious disingenuousness, we cannot vindicate him from something very like inordinate self-partiality.

Detestable as was the man, seldom has the political world exhibited so able a statesman as Richelieu. Dr. Scott appears to us rightly to apprehend his character, and very correctly to have sketched it; and it is a character which deserves to be studied as much as any in modern history.

Jo.

ART. XII. *A Collection of modern and cotemporary Voyages and Travels:* containing, I. Translations from foreign Languages of Voyages and Travels never before published. II. Original Voyages and Travels never before published. III. Analyses of new Voyages and Travels published in England. Vol. I. 8vo. 15s. Boards. R. Phillips.

NEXT to novels, voyages and travels constitute the most fashionable kind of reading; and therefore the caterers for public curiosity have attempted various collections of writings of this description. The volume before us contains a very amusing selection; and being printed in a small type, it includes a considerable quantity of matter. In the first Number, we are presented with a translation from the French of *the Travels in Istria and Dalmatia, drawn up from the Itinerary of L. F. Cassas, by Joseph Lavallée*, a work originally published in folio with many splendid engravings, and of which we gave some account in Vol. 38. N. S. p. 449. To this version copies of some of the numerous plates given in Lavallée's folio are annexed, which may satisfy those who have not seen the originals. As for the translation, though we believe that is generally faithful, it is occasionally deformed by blemishes. At p. 73. we read of 'hair black and *stingy*,' 'and *dishrevelled* limbs,' for *lank* and *shrivelled*; and at p. 82. 'abundant *transpiration*' for *perspiration*.—The next work narrates *Travels through Denmark, Sweden, Austria, and part of Italy, in* 1798, *and* 1799, *by Charles Gottlob Küttner*, translated from the German, which was published at Leipsic, in 4 volumes 8vo. in 1802, and was reviewed in our Appendix to Vol. 38. N. S. p. 532. By the close printing here adopted, these four volumes occupy in the translation only 200 pages. Our character of M. Küttner as a traveller will be justified by a perusal of his work in English; and we may add that, as this gentleman, who is a Saxon, is very partial to our country and our countrymen, his details are more calculated than those of foreigners generally are for our meridian.

He represents Norway to be the Swisserland of the North: but his accounts of Denmark and Sweden, though favorable to those countries in point of scenery, are not flattering to the inhabitants, who seem to be deficient in energy of character. For the amusement of the reader, and to exemplify this translation, we shall copy the portrait of the present king of Sweden:

'The King, who has a good figure and an open countenance, is uncommonly grave, for a person of his age; (28.) it is even said, that he has never been seen to laugh. I once had an opportunity of observing him for about a quarter of an hour, during which time he sat beside the Queen, without moving or uttering a word. I have been informed by persons intimately acquainted with the court, that he entertains a very high idea of his dignity, and that he is extremely solicitous to avoid every thing derogatory to his rank. Though his youth invites to familiarity, yet he knows how to keep every one at a proper distance by a certain coldness and gravity. Even the intimate friends of his early life, who in their former playfellow sometimes forget the sovereign, are said to have experienced a severe reprimand, whenever they have permitted themselves the slightest infringement of that reverence which is due to their Prince. This sense of his dignity may probably be the reason why he is always surrounded with the splendor and formality of a court; whereas many young princes of the present day are not very fond of the one, and gladly dispense with the other.

'The reserved disposition of the King was manifested in his early years, during the regency. He concealed his sentiments relative to the proceedings of the Regent; but when he had assumed the government, he very soon shewed the resolution he had adopted. He has relinquished most of the measures of the Duke of Sudermania, in order to prosecute those of his father, and the nation appears to be satisfied with his conduct; but rather, I conceive, because it is contrary to that of the Regent, than on any other account. The young Monarch is said to dread nothing so much as the idea that any person possesses or seeks to obtain an influence over him. The very suspicion is sufficient to terrify him, and to induce him to break off all intercourse with the individual.'

Lastly, in the class of translations we are presented with *Travels to the westward of the Alleghany Mountains in the states of the Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, in the year* 1802, *&c. By F. A. Michaux*, M. D. &c. for which we refer our readers to our last No. p. 272.

An original article next appears, intitled *An Itinerary from London to Constantinople in sixty days* (taken in the suite of his Excellency the British Ambassador to the Ottoman Porte) *in the year* 1794.—The posts from Ostend to Vienna, and from Vienna to Constantinople, are accurately marked; and the whole length of the journey from London to the capital of

the Turkish Empire is here stated to be 1840 English miles. Though the notices are short, they are sketched with spirit, and the memoranda of the route through Hungary, Transylvania, and the Turkish dominions in Europe, respect countries with which ordinary tourists are unacquainted. We have read again and again of Alps, Pyrenées, and Appenines: but, though antient poets often speak of mounts Hæmus and Olympus, they are rarely the topics of modern travellers. Of the former, we shall take the description given in this itinerary;

'Although the roads over Mount Hæmus are sufficiently impracticable, they are rendered more terrible, as they are the retreat of banditti, a danger certainly great, but which it is the policy of the guards and peasants to enhance, and they demand a gratuity in proportion as they report it to have been. We fortunately escaped. Mount Hæmus is indeed the site of all those beauties in landscape which the poets have described as peculiar to it, and realises their happiest imagery. Deep Glens, impenetrable shade of gigantic chesnuts, shrubs aromatic, and producing the gayest flowers, and rivulets in rich succession, account for the preference paid to these scenes by Virgil, on the report of the ancients, for we do not know that he ever visited them in person.

'——O qui me gelidis in vallibus Hæmi
Sistat! et ingenti ramorum protegat umbra!—
GEORGIC. L. 2, 488.

'The forests in Wallachia and Bulgaria abound in many kinds of fruit trees, particularly cherries, apricots, and vines, &c. For many of the flowers we were too early in the year, but they are found as numerous and exquisite, as in the most cultivated gardens, in a less genial soil. Art strives in vain to equal nature, and the richest garden must yield to the mountain recesses, which we had then under our contemplation, and which, as totally uninhabited, are lost to mankind.

'At the opposite base of Mount Hæmus, we entered Romelia, and followed a winding glen, occasionally a torrent bed, but now of a small stream, with huge stones, which had been precipitated from the summit. The skreens on either side were inconceivably lofty, with broad masses of rock, impending so far, that immediate falling might be apprehended. The trees were generally the dwarf oak, with jasmine, wild roses, and spring flowers, in the greatest perfection and plenty. Our route was taken purposely to avoid ascending Mount Hæmus, and lay entirely between two of the least considerable heights, so that our elevation was not greater than we had before experienced in Transylvania, and the whole distance not exceeding about sixteen miles.

'At Kasanlik we were met by peasant women, who congratulated us on escaping the perils of Mount Hæmus and begged money, and a few miles farther we rested with the usual accommodations at Dobràh.'

Romelia is represented as a beautiful country: but its present possessors neglect to derive from it the blessings which it would afford to a more active and enterprizing people.

'The soil indeed is blessed with spontaneous fertility, producing plants and shrubs of the greatest beauty. Roses grow in such abundance that the Otto which requires the greatest quantity, is extracted from them, by the merchants of Adrianople, and forms an article of a very valuable traffick. Agriculture and even vineyards are universally neglected. It was curious to see twelve or fourteen oxen harnessed by their horns, and three or four men with a single plough of the most inconvenient construction, and one is tempted to believe, that the art of tillage is almost unknown. Near Burgáz is found a deep red-coloured clay, resembling that used for the Etruscan ware, of which Procelaine is now made; which is principally used for the heads of long Turkish pipes, and richly gilt. Basons for drinking sherbet were offered us for sale; wrought in rich patterns in a kind of mosaic, as figures are forbidden by the Mohammedan law. From Burgàz to Tchiotli crossing the Erigene, (Agrianes) a small river, there is little variety, for no description of landscape can be more monotonous than the Turkish, in its artificial features. Upon our right we caught a first sight of the Sea of Marmora, with the immense rock of white marble, which gave name to the island. After having passed so many days in forests or desart plains, the pleasing variety and repose of a sea prospect can be well imagined. The chain of Mount Hæmus rose in the extreme distance behind us with great elevation. Tchiorli (the ancient Turulose) was taken by Orchan 1360, from the Emperor John Paleologos, and rased to the ground. At Koumburgás, we passed the night in the Khan, which is very large and ruinous. All the roads which lead to the metropolis of the Ottoman empire are as much neglected and as impracticable, as the worst village highway in England.'

We cannot rejoice in war, nor approve of plunder, whether it be executed by an individual or by armies: but, if Turkey were deprived of its European possessions, their condition would certainly be greatly improved.

As the remainder of the volume consists of Analyses, we shall not be expected to make it an object of review.

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ART. XIII. *Tristia*; or, the Sorrows of Peter. Elegies to the King, Lords Grenville, Petty, Erskine, the Bishop of London, Messrs. Fox, Sheridan, &c. &c. By P. Pindar, Esq. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Walker.

WELCOME, tuneful Peter, again into our court; since, whatever may be thy sins, thou art a *Poet*, and a *Droll*. Thou hast made us smile (an odd effect indeed of *Tristia*); and we cannot now refuse to smile on thee. Our's however are no *Potosian* smiles; and if thou wantest any thing more than

"empty praise," the coin circulated from our treasury will not be worth an assignat. Thy sorrows are so productive of a material in which we poor rogues like thyself delight, that we cannot find it in our hearts to be sorry that thou hast not been stuffed and crammed into dullness. Hadst thou been fed in Epicurus' sty, thy sleek skin might have shone *with the oil of gladness*, but thy mind would then perhaps have emitted few scintillations. Had Kings, Lords, and Bishops strewed their golden poppies over thee, thou mightest have dozed through life like a sleeping giant, with great powers never called into action. Thanks to the discernment of the King, by keeping thee poor, he has fed the world of wit. Had rich pensions furnished thee with Burgundy and Claret, the stream of Helicon would have run a tiny rill, and long ago thou wouldest have hung up thy lyre in the temple of Plutus. We manage, therefore, things wisely in England, by keeping our great poets poor. We know that the only way to make them spin out their brains to the last is to keep their pockets empty.

Think not, therefore, friend Peter, that thy Sorrows will have any effect. If thy verse flowed without spirit, fire, and originality, it would be desirable to stop thy mouth; but while thy Muse continues to exhilirate us by her delightful sallies, can we wish, (especially in these times, when we particularly stand in need of something to enliven us, and when modern bards are too tame or too prudent to indulge in poignant satire,) that thou shouldst be laid asleep by a sop in the pan? No, Peter: no. We intreat thee, in the name of all the Nine, to think of living only by thy wit, that the World of Genius may live on thee. Address Elegies to Kings and Peers, dream of Riches, and let us have thy waking-thoughts. Be contented with the Chancellorship of Parnassus, and let thy only Exchequer be Pater Noster Row: for though thou throwest about thy Satire, as Virgil did his dung, with a grace, no Augustus or Mœcenas will give thee an obolus. Prudence has told thee that thy wicked Muse has worked thee out of favour with the Great; and thou art now so old a sinner, that the Sorrows of thy repentance will not be believed at court. To render thee all the credit in our power, we shall copy thy sympathizing lamentation with the *Bee*, and *the Speech of Prudence*, with thy reply; and though we can scarcely hope that the latter may obtain thee a draft on the Treasury, it may shew at least that, old as thou art, thou art still in favour with the ladies at the court of Apollo, and procure thee a spoonful of that windy aliment called Fame:

'ELEGY TO THE BEE.

He most pathetically addresses the BEE, on the ingratitude of the World towards him; and prophecies of himself a fate equally cruel.

'SWEET Labourer! midst the Summer's golden hour,
Full oft I trace thy little busy flight—
With pleasure see thee perch from flow'r to flow'r;
On Violets, Woodbines, Roses, Lillies light.

'Yet what to thee is Summer's golden smile?
And what to thee the flow'r-enamell'd plain?
Will gratitude reward thy daily toil?—
No! No! thou workest for reward in vain.

'Not long the hive of treasure will be thine—
RAPACITY will force thy little door:
Those treasures with thy life must thou resign,
A breathless victim on the fragrant store.

'O base return! to lose thy precious breath—
And I, ye Gods! as basely shall be serv'd;
Thou for thy treasure wilt be smoak'd to death—
And I the honey'd Poet shall be starv'd'.—

'THE SPEECH OF PRUDENCE.

"Too much of freedom in thy stanza dwells,
A Freethinker, and freespeaker is thy MUSE,"
Prim PRUDENCE cries who keeps a shop and sells,
With one sweet smile to CHRISTIANS and to JEWS.

"TRUTH is a dangerous acquaintance, mind—
Struck by her voice, the world is in alarm,"
Continues PRUDENCE, "go and FLATTERY find,
Thine idol, GODDESS, does a deal of harm.

"In days of yore, when first thy song began,
How suppliant thou didst beg one laurel sprig!
So full of meek humility the man;
One *little leaf* to stick about his wig,

"But soon as FAME a civil word bestow'd,
PUSS *shew'd her tail* – of *daring*, what display!
Out rush'd thy PEGASUS upon the road,
Heels up! and kick'd down all that cross'd his way!

"How ting'd with blushes was thy MUSE's morn!
Tones in the *minor key*, so sweet—*so under*;
The Linnet's melting warble from the thorn,
Soon chang'd to fury, tempests, flame and thunder.

"Thy wanton hawk each fearful bird pursued—
How couldst thou laugh at Bishops and Reviewers?
Thus, in their anger, wert thou *barbecued*;
Their stake thy body pierc'd, thine eyes their skewers.

"With lawless fury didst thou drive thy car,
O'er hill and dale, indeed without a fear—

Vainly

Vainly thou deem'dst thyself a MAN of WAR:
Reviewers deem thee a poor *Privateer*.

"Ah! PETER, thou hast made the COURT thy foe—
Thy persecution then can be no *riddle*;
It hates to caper to thy tune, I know,
And wish'd a thousand times to break thy *fiddle*.

"Most dangerous is th' attempt at *reformation*—
Why to the people wilt thou tell their *sins*?
Ev'n let the BOOBIES work their own *salvation*;
Why push into their consciences *thy pins*?

"The Bard who begs his alms from door to door,
Must never dare expose the fool or cheat;
The RHYMER should remember he is *poor*—
PARNASSUS dealeth more in *air than meat*.

"Dread is the SATIRIST! a name of fear!
Beast of a thousand heads! a horrid creature!
The world's afraid to see him, or come near!
Noli me tangere in ev'ry feature!

"How couldst thou dream of mocking Courts or Kings?
Of laughing at the fav'rites of a throne?
Cutting of QUALITY the stars and strings?
And tying, dog-like to their *tails*, a *bone*.

"By REASON's curb thy mouth has never bled:
Go, wear it, bear it—use will make thee *able*;
And if *a truth must* get into thy head,
Know knaves and blockheads keep the nicest table.

"Woe to the foolish man, and fit for nought,
Who cannot shut his eyes against the light!
Woe to the man that dares to speak his thought;
And *woe to him* who swears not black is white."

'I own that I have suffer'd for *opinion*;
A liberty of thought was ever mine:
My soul abhorr'd HYPOCRISY's dominion;
And scorn'd to yield for pelf a *golden* line.

'Well then—since Poets, tho' divine, must *munch*,
DAME PRUDENCE, songs of praise shall store my wallet—
Here—waiter, bring me a beefsteak and punch—
CONSCIENCE, go make thy humble bow to PALATE.

'Stars, Garters, Ribbons, reds and greens and blues,
Enjoy your splendor—be with flatt'ry fed—
Ev'n BR—D——L's self shall smile upon the Muse,
And find to gold and silver chang'd his *lead!*

'Breakfasts and dinners, routes and masquerades;
Lo! crown'd with garlands, ye shall pass along—
APOLLO's self, with all Aonian maids,
Shall join the jovial crew with harp and song.

'And

'And WEEPING LADIES, should a lap dog die,
His mem'ry shall not want the tuneful shell;
And should a breathless monkey want a sigh,
The Bard has praises and a sigh to sell.'

We now leave thee, Peter, to the full benefit of thy own declaration; and if thou gettest any custom for thy praises and sighs, remember that there are good-natured reviewers who have inserted thy Advertisement without fee or reward, other than the pleasure which the perusal of thy verses has afforded. Mo.y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1806.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 14. *The Medical Observer.* No. I. On advertised or empirical Medicines. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Highley.

THE object of this publication may be best learnt from the words of the editors; who state that 'their first number is devoted to the examination, &c of empirical medicines, with the view of pointing out the dangerous consequences that most inevitably arise from their indiscriminate use, and also to expose the fraudulent and nefarious practices of advertising potent compositions, under fictitious names, indicating them to be of an innocent nature, in order to deceive the ignorant and unwary, and thus not only to tamper with the lives of their fellow-creatures, but also render the character of the British chemist and medical practitioner, contemptible abroad.'

One opinion only can prevail respecting the magnitude of the evil, and the necessity of applying a remedy for it: but we have some doubts whether the talents of the present editors equal their good intentions. Contemptible as are the characters of the empirics who infest this country, and ridiculous as are their pretensions, they have, by their artifices, obtained so firm a hold on the confidence of the lower orders of society, that it will require both long and well directed exertions to open the eyes of the public to a due sense of their unworthiness. In our opinion, the interference of the legislature will be absolutely necessary; and we have some hopes that steps are now taking for this purpose, by a respectable association formed for the correction of medical abuses. Bos.

Art. 15. *A Treatise on the Chemical History and Medical Powers of some of the most celebrated Mineral Waters, &c. &c.* By Wm. Saunders, M.D. F.R.S. & S.A. 2d Edition, enlarged. 8vo. Boards. Phillips and Fardon.

Of the merits of this work, we have already spoken at some length in our review of the first edition. (See Vol. xxxvi. p. 284.) Its utility and importance have been generally acknowleged; and the

author

author has been induced to prepare it a second time for the press, with the acquisition of a considerable portion of new matter. The most interesting of these additions consits of a communication from Dr. Marcet, containing an account of a chalybeate spring at Brighton, and forming one of the most accurate specimens of the analysis of a mineral water with which we are acquainted. Besides giving us the most minute information respecting the ingredients of the water in question, it also contains some valuable remarks on analysis in general, and furnishes us with some tests which promise to be very extensively useful in similar investigations. One of these is the nitro-muriat of platina; a substance which, we are informed, is a very accurate test of the presence of pot-ash, or any of its compounds, while it is not in the least affected by the mineral alkali. Another substance, which is likely to be peculiarly valuable to the analyst, is the succinat of ammoniac; a salt which appears to indicate with great delicacy the presence of alumine in any of its combinations.—We were particularly struck with the elegant simplicity of the apparatus employed by Dr. Marcet, and with the neat manner in which he appears to have conducted every part of his processes.

We shall only add that this treatise is in every respect worthy of the public patronage, and must remain a work of standard value both to the chemist and the physician. **Bos.**

Art. 16. *The Domestic Guide in Cases of Insanity*, pointing out the Causes, Means of preventing, and proper Treatment of that Disorder. 12mo. 2s. sewed. Button, &c.

It is the design of this writer rather to give popular than professional information. He deems it important in the cure of insanity, that the disease should be resisted from its very first commencement; and principally from this motive he composed the present volume, which, from its small bulk and the plainness of its style, he thinks may be advantageously circulated beyond the limits of the profession, and may thus convey a general knowlege of the earliest symptoms of attack. We can fairly recommend it, however, to the attentive consideration of those who are engaged in this branch of practice; since it contains many sensible and some new observations, and bears every mark of being the result of experience and observation.

In the chapter on 'management,' the author insists on the necessity of occasionally employing corporal punishment; a measure which may sound harsh, but which he regards as in the end less severe than many other methods that have been proposed for acquiring the proper degree of authority over the patient. His plan of medical treatment consists in producing a state of general relaxation; which he effects principally by the administration of purgatives, and the employment of the warm bath. He positively condemns opium, and digitalis; bleeding and blisters he considers as frequently injurious; and he ridicules the idea of deriving any advantage from the partial application of cold to the head. Notwithstanding, however, the general simplicity of his style and manner, and the number of oblique insinuations which he throws out against those who indulge more in learned theories than in the acquisition of facts, we find that the author has himself his favourite hypothesis. If his system of relaxation does

does not succeed after a fair trial, he recommends the administration of emetics, on the principle that the act of vomiting impels the blood into the vessels of the head: because, as in insanity the vessels of the head are clogged with viscid and impure blood, the impulse induced in vomiting, by driving up a current of fresh blood, will remove the former obstruction, and, as it were, rince out the vessels! Bos

Art. 17. *An Appendix to Practical Observations on the Nature and Treatment of the exasperated Symptoms of the Venereal Disease*, containing Thoughts on the Nature and Management of the Venereal Bubo, particularly in its obstinate State. By Edward Geoghegan, Surgeon to the Dublin General Dispensary, &c. &c. 12mo. Dublin, Gilbert and Hodges.

As we noticed Mr. Geoghegan's former work in terms of commendation, (Vol. xxxviii. p. 213.) we are sorry that we cannot speak favorably of the present appendix. Mr. G. describes a particular state of bubo, in which it shews no disposition to heal, and when mercury seems to aggravate rather than remove the symptoms. This occurence is well known to all practitioners; and they also know that, under such circumstances, it is necessary to discontinue the use of mercury, and to try those means which tend to establish the general health. The difficulty is to discriminate these cases from the more common kind: but no information is given on this point. The rule of practice, which he deduces from his views of the subject, we cannot but consider as highly objectionable; and if generally adopted, we are confident that it would prove very destructive in its consequences. Do

Art. 18. *An Encyclopedia of Surgery, Medicine, Midwifery, Physiology, Pathology, Anatomy, Chemistry*, &c. &c. &c. To which is added an abridged Translation of Cullen's Nosology. By John James Watt, Surgeon. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Highley. 1806.

The publication, to which this pompous title is so egregiously misapplied, is a small volume containing short explanations of the terms used in medicine, and the different sciences connected with it. As far as we have examined them, the articles appear to be free from any gross or striking inaccuracies; and the work may be considered as rather deficient than noxious. Do

Art. 19. *Observations on the Composition and Uses of the Water at the New Sulphur Baths, at Dinsdale, near Darlington, in the County of Durham.* By John Peacock. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Mawman.

Some workmen, boring for coal near Darlington, in the year 1789, discovered the spring which forms the subject of this pamphlet. Its strong sensible qualities rendered it an object of attention in the neighbourhood; and persons affected with different complaints having appeared to derive great advantage from the employment of its waters, Mr. Peacock was induced to examine into the nature of their impregnation. He accordingly gives an account of his experiments; which, although they do not exhibit any peculiar skill in analysis, or neatness in the management of chemical re-agents, seem sufficient to prove that it is a sulphureous spring of unusual strength. The sulphur appears to be held in solution by hydrogen; and if we may trust the result of Mr. Peacock's experiment, the quantity of sulphur

is

is very considerably greater than that which exists in the celebrated waters of Harrowgate. It also differs from the latter in not containing any purgative salts.—If this statement be confirmed by more experienced analysts, the Darlington spring will be a very valuable addition to the mineral waters of this country. It will probably exhibit all the virtues of the other sulphureous waters in a higher degree, both from its superior strength, and because it is not purgative; the sulphur being able on this account more completely to pervade the system, and to produce its specific effects on it.

After having given an account of the nature of the Darlington water, the author presents us with his ideas respecting the mode of its operation. We observe that he is a strenuous advocate for the chemical pathology, and a warm admirer of the hypotheses of Dr. Beddoes and Dr. Garnett. In conformity with the opinion of the latter, he imagines that sulphurated hydrogen, when received into the system, acts by attracting from it the superfluity of oxygen; or, to use his own expression, that it possesses a 'disoxygenating or sedative power.' This process, he imagines, is principally effected by means of the hydrogen; and, in order to give plausibility to his hypothesis, he adduces several common experiments, in which oxygen and hydrogen manifest a strong attraction for each other.—We have had frequent opportunities of expressing our opinion respecting this kind of hypothetical reasoning, which has always appeared to us very vague and unsatisfactory; and we do not perceive that Mr. Peacock's method of treating the subject gives it any additional support.

The author particularly recommends the Darlington water for the removal of cutaneous diseases; and here we think it will very probably be found efficacious. On this subject, we agree with Mr. Peacock in the opinion, that these complaints are generally attended with a constitutional affection, to which it is absolutely necessary to attend in the progress of the cure. **Bos.**

Art. 20. *Observations on the Use and Abuse of Mercury*, and on the Precautions necessary in its Employment. By A. P. Wilson, M.D. F.R.S. Edin. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

These observations are stated by the author to be 'addressed to the public with a view, on the one hand, to *do away* certain erroneous prepositions (prepossessions) respecting the effects of mercury, which impede the necessary employment of it; and, on the other, to call its attention to the impropriety of an indiscriminate use of this medicine, by which much harm is often done, and the medicine itself brought into disrepute.' The prejudices against the use of mercury, he imagines, arise from three sources, viz. the nature of the complaint in which it was first employed, the unpleasant effects which its operation frequently produces, and the bad consequences which arise from an improper use of it. The first objection is evidently frivolous; and he endeavours to shew that the second may be obviated by proper precautions, and that the third is an allegation which must necessarily lie against every substance of real efficacy.

With respect to the second object which Dr. W. proposed for consideration, he thinks that, besides the debility which mercury, when

when taken to any considerable extent, must occasion by evacuations, it also operates directly in weakening the stomach and bowels. Hence he argues against the employment of it as a purgative, and even goes so far as to assert that it ought scarcely in any instance to be given internally. Our practical readers will probably feel little disposed to acquiesce in this caution.

On the whole, this pamphlet appears to us to be a weak and flimsy performance; and therefore it has disappointed us, as coming from a gentleman whose former works had impressed us with a favourable opinion of his talents.

Bos.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 21. *All-Saint's Church, Derby:* a Poem, by John Edwards. 4to. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons.

It is possible to make too much of a subject, and poets are very prone to this sin of excess. On a country-church of no very distinguished fame, Mr. Edwards has written nearly a thousand lines; and though we may be disposed to applaud his skill, and the easy flow of his verse, we could have wished for his sake as well as for our own that he had been less diffuse. He begins his poem on All Saint's Church with the Creation, and terminates it with the General Resurrection. In filling up the interval between these two events, a poet has indeed a large range: but then he must talk of something besides All-Saint's Church at Derby. This is the case with Mr. Edwards. After an address to the Majestic Pile, in which he expresses a wish that his verse might be a companion of its *immortal* subject, we are carried back to the days of innocence; are informed that in Paradise there was no necessity for churches; and are reminded of the building of the Tabernacle in the Wilderness, and of its being copied in the temple at Jerusalem, which, having been destroyed, was succeeded by the second temple built to receive the Messiah, who promulgated the Everlasting Gospel, and ordained that there should be other places of prayer besides that at Jerusalem. Hence Churches began to be erected in every clime, and

> '——Then ALBION in her forest nooks,
> Her rude plantations, fields, and vallies green,
> Heard the glad tidings: meekly bow'd to earth,
> The rugged Saxon mourn'd his deeds of blood;
> Cast his ferocious garb aside, and sought
> Thenceforth, instruction in the lore of peace.
> Fairer the country smil'd, and where the trail
> Of smoke from cabins dappled the brown woods,
> There too, ere long, the village steeple peer'd.'

Now we reach the avowed subject of the poem, its history is detailed, and its *identity*, under its various buildings and rebuildings, reminds Mr. E. of the sameness of the body at the general resurrection!!

We come next to the Bell, (called 'the cryer of the clock') which is compared to the wandering Jew. At the sight of the tower, the poet

poet is so warmed by enthusiasm, that, though he ventures to give the pre-eminence to York Minster, Westminster Abbey, and St. Paul's Cathedral, he exclaims with rapture

'*Thou* art indeed a noble edifice;'

and having duly meditated on its stability, he finishes the first part with reminding us, happily connecting Church and State, that 'the Government of England is built on wise foundations.'

In the second part, the Genius of Architecture is invoked, and much is remarked on the Grecian and Gothic styles of building. When the bells sound, farmers and cottagers are enjoined to lift up their children towards 'the steeple's chinky walls,' for of old high respect was paid to bells, which 'by the priests were lav'd, anointed, crossed, blessed, and as Saints y'clep'd.' Next the uses of Steeples are sung; and, though *All-Saints* occupies an inland site, we are told to recollect that the spires and steeples of churches on the coast serve as land-marks to mariners: on the strength of which observation, Tenterden's 'temple pyramid,' and the tower of Boston church, are duly apostrophised. Returning from the sea to Derby, the poet sings forth the reason of churches being placed due East and West, and is happy in remarking that All-Saints is in this respect 'in unity with twice ten thousand Churches, whose collected emphasis directs the mind to the One God.'—Now we are carried to the top of the tower, the poet not forgetting to describe the dark ascent up the well-stair-case; and when he reaches the top, he gives the surrounding landscape in a superb blank verse Panorama, in which not only the river Derwent makes a conspicuous figure, but the very smoke from the chimnies of Derby town, which appear 'in graceful undulations.'

In the third part, the poet introduces us to the service of the church, and interrupts the majestic march of the Epic Muse in order to prepare a solemn hymn adapted to Christian worship. Resuming his accustomed strain, he expresses his admiration of 'the simple beauty of this spacious church;' digresses to give a history of the origin of Dale Abbey; and having traced it through all its mutations to its present ruined state, he thus addresses *All-Saints*:

'THOU TOO, MUST ONE DAY FALL! for all on earth
Is perishable vanity! Man dies—
Survivors build his tomb—but that too sinks,
Lost in the gulph of years! Of the PAST WORLD,
The very SHADOW flits away. Awhile,
A little while, in this sublunar scene,
We must sojourn; but soon, the wings of death,
Will waft our spirits hence;'—

and in conclusion;

'But what on earth is perfect? Lo, O Church,
Thy walls in hollow echos quick reply,
That nought on earth is perfect! Yet the day
Shall surely come, when this dishonor'd Dust,
Which now but soils thy foot, shall start to Life
Immortal, incorruptible, and join

That

That LIVING UNIVERSAL CHURCH, of which
Thou'rt but the frail exterior sign. Ere then,
Thou may'st have long lain level with the ground,
Thy very name forgotten! But the hand,
That wak'd, responsive to thy praise, the lyre,
And now in mournful cadence ling'ring sweeps
Its dying chords; the eye, that has admir'd
So oft, thy comeliness; in ev'ry garb
Of varying seasons; whether summer suns
Pour'd a green radiance on thy wreathed tower,
Or on its stony foliage winter strew'd
His flowers of snow; THESE will not see thy fate,
Nor sound thy dirge. Soon man to hoary years
Arrives; but ere with ivy locks thy brow
Shall be entwin'd, ere thou with tottering look
Shalt overhang thy base, ages, must roll,
Eventful ages of this fleeting life.
Yea, Thee, the mighty Sun, that when thy vanes
First to the changing elements unfurl'd
Their golden plumage, from his beamy car
Look'd on and smil'd; Thee, when his beryl wheels
Tracking the spheres, eclips'd in fearful shade
A thousand times have roll'd, a thousand times
Emerg'd refulgent, he may still behold;
Whilst aye rejoicing in his blessed light,
Thou lift'st thy fretted turrets to the skies
As now——the glorious VESTIBULE of HEAV'N!'

Many passages in this poem have merit: but, by spinning out his theme, Mr. E. has made his Muse work harder than was necessary. In p. 20 we have '*Adapt*' for Adapted; and at p. 22, lines 10 and 11 have no grammatical construction. Mo.y.

Art. 22. *Poems, chiefly in the Scotish* Dialect, by the Rev. James Nicol. 2 vols. 12mo. 10s. in Boards, Longman and Co. 1805.

With more diligence of revision and less contempt of criticism, the author of these fugitive pieces might probably succeed in pleasing those who are not very fastidious, and who can relish natural sentiments expressed in simple language. In our opinion, however, Mr. Nicol is more fortunate in his English than in his Scotish effusions. Among the latter, are very few stanzas that we can quote with approbation, since they are usually characterized by low and vulgar phraseology, incongruously blended with expressions which cannot be regarded as provincial. The verses intitled the 'Daft Days,' and the 'Lammas Feast,' contain some curious allusions to scenes of rude and national festivity, which are fast passing away; and the 'Epistle on applying for an augmentation of stipend' bespeaks some ingenuity and humour. When we add that the 'Address to Poverty' displays some striking imagery, particularly in the two ensuing stanzas, we have perhaps rendered ample justice to the merit of Mr. Nicol's Doric lays.

'I see

'I see thee, shiverin, wrinklet, auld,
Cour owre a spunk that dies wi' cauld,
Thy claise a' patch'd, a hunder-fauld,
Yet thro' the clouts
Thy knees an elbows, lookin bauld,
The storm salutes!

'Wi' ae-e'ed specks, an' that ee crackit,
To darn thy hose thou hast the knack o't;
Now, steek on steek, they're gailie tackit;
But here's the warst o't,
Whan by thy mouldie, swall'd heels rackit,
Again they'll burst out!'

'The genius of Burns could new-model and improve the popular songs of his native country: but such a bold experiment should not be attempted by every one who fancies that he can write verses. In the instances before us, the imitations are numerous, but far from happy, and the failures of the Rev. author are by no means redeemed by the terseness of his muse. We shall quote a few lines, which art not unworthy of the poetry of the Hottentots:

'But Stubble-rig gat time to rue
That he sae laid about it;
'Tween punch an ream a tulzie grew,
An' fiercelie was disputit.
To keep baith down, that upwards flew,
He strane fu' hard, nae doubt o't;
Till bust!—he gae a desperate spue,
An' gut an' ga' he scoutit
'I' the kirn that night;

'But Meg, wi' the sight, was quite haster'd,
An' nae doubt, was bannin ill luck;
While' the face o' poor Geordie was plaster'd,
An' his mou was fill'd fou wi' the muck!
Confound ye! cry'd Geordie, an' spat out
The glaur that adown his beard ran;—
Preserve us! quo Meg, as she gat out
The door,—an' thus lost a gudeman.'

Henry and Everilla, the stanzas on leaving and returning to the parsonage of Traquhair, and William and Anna, are among the best of the English compositions:—but we extract one of the Songs as a shorter specimen.

'TUNE,—*Caledonian Hunt's Delight.*

'What balm can cure my wounded soul,
What charms my sorrows can remove,
When mountains rise and billows roll
Between me and the maid I love.
Amid the gloom which absence makes.
Hope, trembling, darts a feeble ray,
Till pale Despair appears, and takes,
The very soul of life away!

'Once smiling Pleasure round me played,
Nor felt I Sorrow's poison'd dart;—
These days are gone! Remembrance sad,
Of joys departed, wrings my heart!
The prayer, by Misery address'd,
Grant, gracious Heaven! I ask no more!
Let Memory perish in my breast,
Or *Nancy* to my arms restore!

We could well dispense with the few fables which Mr. Nicol has introduced into his Collection, and also with many prosaic lines and false rhymes. Let him exercise his powers of selection, and apply the *limæ labor*, if he be desirous of an honourable station among the poets of his country. **Muir.**

Art. 23. *Poems, suggested chiefly by Scenes in Asia-Minor, Syria, and Greece*, with Prefaces, extracted from the Author's Journal. Embellished with two Views, of the Source of the Scamander, and the Aqueduct over the Simois. By the late J. D. Carlyle, B.D. F.R.S.E. Chancellor of Carlisle, Vicar of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge, &c. 4to. pp 170. 1l. 1s. Boards. White. 1805.

When the Earl of Elgin was appointed Ambassador to the Porte, in 1790, Professor Carlyle was invited to accompany him, with the view of inquiring into the latent treasures of the libraries of Constantinople. Far, however, from limiting his researches to the special object of his mission, he explored, with a classical eye, the once flourishing country of Asia Minor, and the islands and shores of the Archipelago. Since his prose seems to be more attractive than his poetry, we regret that his Tour through the Troad, which was nearly completed, is not destined to see the light.

On the present effusions, which were deprived, by the author's illness, of the benefit of revision and correction, it would ill become us to exercise the rigours of criticism. At the same time, we feel ourselves constrained to remark that, in the passages immediately connected with the journal, we seldom discern even the germ of original or impressive poetry. The critical file might have improved an obscure stanza, or smoothed a rugged line: but is it reasonable to expect that it would have also supplied more brilliant conceptions, or more glowing imagery? The pieces to which we allude are rather deficient in spirit than in those minor elegancies which are the result of careful revision.

The 'Translations from the Arabic,' and the 'Original Poems,' compose a smaller portion of the performance: but they are more animated and poignant, the former chiefly turning on some pretty or pathetic thought just bordering on a conceit; and the latter conveying moral sentiment in the form of neat and playful apologue, or in the more direct language of description and reflection.

The tales of 'the Salted Cherry', and 'Hopus, Tropus and Mopus,' are not unfavourable samples of lessons of conduct conveyed in sportive verse: but we conceive that the author is less happy in his 'Paraphrase of the Lord's Prayer,' and in 'the Epitaph.'

If, however, Mr. Carlyle seldom attains to the sublimer heights of poetry, he also seldom offends our taste by the common delinquencies of a profusion of epithets and faulty rhymes.—The paper and press-work of this publication are very handsome; and the plates form a suitable accompaniment.

For an account of Specimens of Arabian Poetry, by the same author, we refer our readers to the XXIId. volume of our New Series, p. 42. **Muir.**

Art. 24. *Les Champignons du Diable;* or Imperial Mushrooms: a mock-heroic Poem, in five Cantos: including a Conference between the Pope and the Devil, on his Holiness's Visit to Paris: illustrated with Notes. By the Editor of "Salmagundi," and "the Wiccamical Chaplet," &c. &c. Small 8vo. pp. 204. 5s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1805.

Bonaparte the Devil's darling is the subject of this mock-heroic; and though the game is growing rather serious, it is impossible not to be diverted with the poet's ludicrous account,

'How the Devil's conj'ring box
Swell'd CONSUL FROG to EMP'ROR OX.'

In Hudibrastic sauce the imperial mushrooms are stewed; the Devil is made to play the part of chief cook; and the Pope, at the Devil's persuasion, says Grace. A long debate occurs in Pandemonium among the smoke-dried peers' of Satan's parliament, respecting the '*titled toad-stools*:' but, notwithstanding that it is enlivened with occasional flashes of wit, it is too much spun out. The most entertaining part of the poem is the last canto, containing the conference between the Pope and the Devil; in which the latter, after a variety of unsuccessful arguments, at last vanquishes the Pope's reluctance to consecrate Bonaparte, by *mildly* intimating that probably, in case of a refusal, his Holiness's neck would feel 'the gripe of a profane hempen cravat.'

We copy the beginning of this curious dialogue, which will sufficiently explain the nature of the composition:

'*A Conference between the* Pope *in his pontificalibus, and the* Devil, *booted and spurred, &c.*

SCENE.

THE VATICAN.

'Satan. He, who's disposed for easy jaunt,
'Twixt Hell and Church *cucullitant*
Should travel; highway better beaten
I've never trod.—So, now for greeting
Pontifical!—Cronies, of Rome,
Is OLD INFALLIBLE at home?
Porter. Who makes this thund'ring at the gate?
Sure 'tis *the Devil's Advocate.*
Satan. No! HE's *in person*, hither come.
Porter. Is he? He shan't want elbow room!
[Porter *runs off, crying, the* Devil! *the* Devil!!!

Enter the Pope,

Satan. Your blessing! venerable Dad!
Pope. Bless *You!*
Satan. You may bless ONE AS BAD
Ere long.
Pope. Why, how now! whither gone is
My Master of the Ceremonies?
That I'm by an ill-favoured stranger
Intruded on?—I doubt some danger,
Threatens my state or safety near!!
Satan. Your Holiness has nought to fear:
I'm the Pope's honest friend; in proof,
Order a boot-jack, and my hoof
I'll shew you in a crack: here 'tis!
Pope. What, Nick!!—I for French Bishop's phiz,
Of their *new hierarchy* mistook yours.—
Satan. That's a fine compliment, Gad zookers!
I see you're not dispos'd to flatter.
Pope. But from your fire-side what's the matter
That brings you here I can't divine.
Satan. Why, there's a *protegé* of mine,
A jack of all trades, who his coat has
As often chang'd as pagan Proteus:
His Sov'reign's bounty rear'd the brat,
First Loyalist, then Democrat,
Zealot of Jacobinic band,
Tergiverse, Leader, Consul Grand,
Votary of Mahomet, and Christ,
As either to his Mill brings grist,
Of France exotic Emp'ror:
Yet, with all these, one title more
He wants, and by your help must gain 't;
So make him, if you please, *a* SAINT,
'Tis but a small desideratum;
I beg you'll go and consecrate him!
If *You*'ll officiate, *I'll cry* "*Amen.*"
Your book of choice receipts examine,
For Rheims' Ampulla's crack'd and drain'd
Of all the Chrism that it contain'd;
That is to say, "the fat 's i' the fire:"
Ergo, 'tis meet, most rev'rend Sire!
That you, with aid of Card'nals Fesch,
And Maury, toss us up some fresh.
You, to whom three fam'd *Colnebrook* Coqui
Were scullions, (trust me I don't mock ye,)
For well you know *divine* Appointment
Ratification lacks of Ointment;
Yet *squinting* HERETIC averr'd
A good name was to be preferr'd:"
Now, though my Emp'ror half a million
Of names has got, like old Castilian;

'Tis

'Tis true as strange, in the whole set
There is not found a *good name* yet;
But, if the Ointment you'll dispense,
Good name he'll get of consequence.

Pope. I've had an *Invitation Ticket*,
But should I go t' anoint the wicked?
While I the sacred unction shed
Will it by Scoffers not be said,
That HOLY CHURCH *legitimates*
All roguery which success awaits?
Sanctions that *monstrous* Usurpation
Which set the seal to confiscation
Of her domains, and fights the battles
Of those who stole her goods and chattels.
Has not *your* Emp'ror now at home
(Thanks to French burglaries at Rome)
Statutes unique, and paintings fine,
To deck his palace, stol'n from mine?
Is not on wrong the greatness built
Of this monopolist in guilt?
Besides, can you expect that I, Sir
Devil! should crown apostatizer?
One who has trampled on the Cross;
I would as soon anoint a horse!
Or consecrate from Coast of Guinea,
A royal tiger or hyena!

Satan. Soft and fair, Pontiff! why so hot?
Have you the CONCORDAT forgot?"

The poet (Mr. Huddesford) takes every Hudibrastic privilege in point of rhyme, so that his lines often require some management in order to be read as verse. We think, also, that, in the plenitude of his ridicule, he has not been sufficiently attentive to propriety. Even in a mock-heroic, some shadow of probability should be preserved. Mo-y.

Art. 25. *Anacreontis Odaria, ad textus Barnesiani fidem emendata. Accedunt Variæ Lectiones curâ* Edwardi Forster, A.M. *Reg. Societ. et Antiq. Societ. Lond. Soc.* 8vo. 15s. Boards. Miller.

This edition of Anacreon does great credit to the Bulmer press. The Greek is beautifully printed on fine wove paper; and the vignettes, with which many of the odes are decorated, are tastefully executed. No preface nor translation accompanies this edition of the Grecian *Erotist*: but Mr. Forster has been studious of collecting various readings for the purpose of obtaining the genuine text of the poet. Do

Art. 26. *The Odes of Anacreon, translated from the Greek into English Verse.* By Thomas Girdlestone, M.D. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinson.

Various attempts have been made to render into English verse the Lyrics of the poet of Teos; and if they possess not the terseness and elegant simplicity of the original, they all convey the warm feelings and character of the Grecian Bard. Dr. Girdlestone thinks that 'the

unity of each ode should be preserved in that measure which approaches nearest the prevailing measure of the original; that the language should neither be composed of low nor unpoetic words; and 'that the epigrammatic conciseness of the Greek should be as much as possible preserved.' As, moreover, he is of opinion that these excellencies have not yet been united in any existing translation, he has ventured to try his skill; not, however, if we may credit his own modesty, for the purpose of supplying this *desideratum* himself, but to rouse the genius of some more successful candidate.

Anacreon is concise; and if we consider the moral tendency of his voluptuous Muse, we cannot wish for the translator to expand his ideas. It is pleasant to *sing*, but not wise to *live* with Anacreon; and Dr. G. offers a judicious hint to this effect in his preface.

In the execution of his task, Dr. G. has kept close to his original; and if he be occasionally tame, and his lines feeble, it must be remembered that he labours at humble fidelity rather than at elegant expansion. We shall give two specimens, to speak for themselves, viz odes 15 and 17, following Barnes's edition:

'THAT WE OUGHT TO LIVE FREELY.'

FAR from Gyges' cares I fly,
What for Crœsus' wealth care I?
Gold in me no contests breeds,
Me no King with envy feeds.
Odours sweet around me strew,
With perfumes my beard bedew.
Round my head fresh roses twine,
These these cares are cares of mine.
Pleasure flies on this day's wings,
Who knows what to-morrow brings?
While the days serenely glide,
Sport the dice, throw cares aside;
Let's enjoy with Bacchus these,
And the flying moments seize;
Lest disease shou'd haste and cry,
'Thou must these libations fly!'

'ON A SILVFR BOWL.

'Now O Vulcan show thy skill!
With thy art that silver fill!
Let no armour meet my view,
What with fights have I to do?
Make what better suits my soul,
Make a wide capacious bowl;
Deck it not with twinkling stars,
Nor with rapid rolling cars;
Nor Orion's hateful face,
Nor with Pleiads it disgrace;
Why should I the Pleiads see?
What is Bootes to me?

Bacchus

Bacchus and the branching vine,
Love and fair Bathyllus join,
Gilded o'er and clust'ring round,
Let them from the grapes rebound.'

Dr. G. rarely exceeds in his verses the length of the originals, notwithstanding that the thoughts of Anacreon are very compressed. For the sake of the rhime, however, he occasionally inserts a line to which nothing corresponds in the Greek. Mo.y.

Art. 27. *Gerusalemmè Liberata, di Torquato Tasso, con note, &c. i. e. Jerusalem Delivered*, by Torquato Tasso, illustrated by Notes explanatory of the most obscure Passages, by grammatical Elucidations, and by Imitations of the Writers of classic Antiquity. The whole revised and corrected, and adapted to the Use of Students of the Italian Language. By Romualdo Zotti. 2 Vols. 12mo. Dulau and Co.

The language of modern Italy having become a fashionable study in this country, editions of the Italian Classics with notes cannot fail of encouragement, if they are executed by annotators of adequate skill and learning. Tasso's beautiful poem of *Jerusalem Delivered* requires fewer elucidations than most of the celebrated productions of the Italian Muse: but to the student, and even to the man of letters, notes are occasionally acceptable. The period of history to which this amusing epic refers, the characters introduced, and the nature of the machinery, will require explanation for youthful readers: the scholar will be amused in tracing the imitations of the Latin Poets, in which Tasso has indulged himself, and of his elder brethren Dante, Petrarch, and Ariosto; and it will be an advantage to all to have a corrected text.

Sig. Zotti informs us that this edition of the Jerusalem was begun by Sig. Nardini, but that on him devolved the trouble of executing the greater part of the work, and of superintending the correction of the whole. From the title, may be collected a sufficient idea of the nature of the annotations subjoined to these pages. The notes are brief, and but thinly scattered, and they are preceded by notices of the life of Tasso, equally concise with the notes. We think that Sig. Zotti might improve his plan, and enlarge his annotations and illustrations with advantage. We must, however, add that his notes, short as many of them are, will be useful to the learner, by explaining the language of the Italian Muse; which, in its extensive licence, its various abbreviations, and the adoption of peculiar words and accents, displays a vast dissonance from the language of prose. D.o

Art. 28. *A Hint to Husbands:* a Comedy in Five Acts, performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 4th Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington and Co. 1806.

Contrary to the usual practice in these days, Mr. Cumberland has adopted Blank Verse for the dialogue of this play; and he has been by no means unsuccessful in the attempt, since his language is spirited and forcible. In the dialogue, indeed, the principal merit of the

piece consists; for the air of the whole is *sombre*, the *business* is scanty, and the plot is simple, inartificial, and as old as man and woman. Fickle and truant husbands are reclaimed by sensible and amiable wives.—Some of the characters are well drawn: but Lady Transit appears rather too much *gifted*, to be consistent with her origin.—*Pliant* is the mere *Marplot* of Mrs. Centlivre's *Busy Body*.—An inadvertent *fac simile* of expression occurs in pp. 35 and 38,

'My nation you may know,
But me you do not.'

—'You may know your Lord,
But me you do not know.'

P. 87. Lady Le Brun uses a very low expression when she says,

'And every body's else, *that has to do with you.*'

In the taunting dialogue between Lord and Lady Transit, he tells her that she talks 'like a child,' to which she makes this severe reply:

'When you, my Lord, forget to be a man,
'Tis well that I, with all a woman's feelings,
Can answer like a child.—I have told you
What should have been the motives for your marriage:
Now, if you're not asham'd of the confession,
You may inform me what those motives *were*.'

Fairford, a rough Diamond, is made to use peculiar and striking phraseology. He says to Heartright, another grating piece of honesty, *a didmond-cut-diamond*,

'Who but you
Would doubt my patience, when it stands the trial
Of your rough sparring buffets? But I see
You drive in your philanthropy head downwards;
A clumsy workman.'—

To an honest old bachelor attorney, who will not accept any other legacy than a walking stick, or some such token, he replies:

'I wou'd I had my walking stick just now;
You well deserve it.
'*Codicil.* ——— I don't care for that.
You've ever been my friend, and that's enough.
'*Fairford.* I was all that when I was nothing else;
It would be shameful were I less your friend
When I've more means to be so. But no matter;
You are a mule, a veritable mule,
And, thanks to Nature, generation stops;
None of your cross grain'd progeny will plague us.'

To his nephew *Trevor*, who had been with him in Russia, and whom he intended for a Russia merchant, but who had just embraced the Military profession, he says;

'Go to your cousin; put on your red coat,
And let her see how clownish and how clumsy
A Russian Bear shews in a lion's skin.'
'*Trevor.* Very well, Uncle! You and I have fac'd

The

The North-sea storm, when not a rag of sail
Clung to the yard; you did not find me then
A man unfit for service, or afraid
To look upon a sight more terrible
Than armies can present: so launch your joke;
Your Russian bear may with the lion's skin
Possess the Lion's heart This I will promise,
Go where he will, your Bear shan't shame his leader.'

Such passages as these will not be thrown away on either auditors or readers: but they could not secure a brilliant destiny for the play. G.2

Art. 29. *Tekeli; or the Siege of Montgatz.* A Melo-drame, in Three Acts, as performed with distinguished Success at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By Theodore Edward Hook. Esq. The Music by Mr. Hook, sen. 8vo. 2s. C and R. Baldwin. 1806.

A mere vehicle for scenery and music; which cannot challenge commendation, and scarcely ought to provoke criticism. D.o

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *A Letter to Mr. Whitbread,* on the duty of rescinding the Resolutions which preceded the Impeachment of Lord Viscount Melville. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1806.

In cases of Impeachment, the House of Commons may be considered in some respects as the Grand Jury which find the bill, and the House of Lords as the court in which the individual against whom the bill is found must be tried. Between the finding the bill and the trial, the person accused must necessarily incur the suspicion of guilt; and though the court, before whom he is tried, should entirely acquit him, it is not the practice of the Grand Jury to re-consider the case, and to pronounce that they were in error. It will be said, however, that the House of Commons did more in the case of Lord Melville than merely find the bill, or confirm the charges exhibited against him: that they were in a certain degree Judges; and, in consequence of their judgment, not only were charges presented against Lord M. at the bar of the Upper House, but his Majesty was addressed to inflict an immediate punishment on him, by removing him from his councils, &c.

How far it is right to urge the Commons to rescind the resolutions which preceded the Impeachment, is a matter which demands some deliberation. Would not this measure bar future proceedings by Impeachment? Is it, moreover, the way to induce the House of Commons to adopt such a measure, by representing their proceedings against Lord M. as the result of 'faction,' 'of a jacobin majority,' and 'a majority procured;' or intimating that the persons accusing were instigated by interest or revenge?

Beyond a doubt, Mr Whitbread, and the party in the House of Commons which acted with him, proceeded in the case of Lord Melville on the purest motives of public duty; and though that nobleman was found *not guilty* of the charges preferred against him, by a *majority* of his judges, it does not appear that the movers and conductors

ductors of the prosecution merit any such censure as the rescinding of the resolutions would convey.

What other public redress, after a far more vexatious and protracted trial, had Mr. Hastings, than an absolution from the charge? Moy.

Art. 31. *The State of the Negotiation*; with Details of its Progress and Causes of its Termination, in the Recall of the Earl of Lauderdale. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1806.

Those persons who, in the newspapers and in conversation, have represented the present publication as in any degree official, most certainly did not mean to pay government a compliment: for a more dull and uninstructive performance has rarely been ushered into light under any circumstances of *pretension*; and the writer is as much deficient in discernment respecting political matters, as he is destitute of information in all that relates to them. To this charge, however, his description of the late confederacy, and the situation in which its defeat left Europe, are indeed exceptions; since, though they are in many respects faulty, they have some claims to merit. It is not, indeed, from the incapacity of this writer to define political objects, to state the views of cabinets, and to vindicate the measures and plans of ministers, that we question his ever having been honoured with ministerial confidence: but this is to be collected from his lame, unsubstantial, and incoherent account of the negotiation. The details of it which have been published by the enemy, garbled as they are, sufficiently prove that the representations given in these pages are as inaccurate as they are flimsy.

Respectable booksellers ought to protect the public against such attempts to impose on it, as the present instance has exemplified. Hard necessity may drive an author to these dishonourable artifices: but what can be said in mitigation of those who, not languishing under the same temptation, lend themselves conscious and willing accessaries to the fraud? Jo.

Art. 32. *An Address to Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Esq.* on the Public and Private Proceedings during the late Election for Westminster; including the State of Domestic Politics at the Commencement of the Parliament, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 63. 2s. Stockdale junior.

As our cause is that of the country, and our party is the public, we view the political contests of the day with no other feeling than such as is derived from their apparent tendency to affect the general weal; and so far are we from condemning those who subject to examination the conduct of public men, that we deem them deserving of high commendation, if they shew themselves at all qualified for the office. If their motives appear to be pure and honorable, and if they display the requisite ability and information, whether we have agreed with them or not, we have never failed to offer them due praise: while, on the other hand, we have made it a practice to expose ignorant and unprincipled pretenders, and to give no quarter to men who seek to attract notice by dealing in virulence, calumny, and falsehood. We respect the press, and we venerate the

the liberty which is allowed to it under our excellent form of government: but we are in the same proportion concerned when we see the one most vilely prostituted, and the other most grossly, wantonly, and willfully abused.

Whether we have, on the present occasion, without just cause indulged in this train of thought, let our readers decide when they shall have cast their eyes over a few sentences which, we shall borrow from the polluted pages before us. We repeat, as we have lately asserted, that we do not profess to be defenders and advocates of the ingenious and eloquent Treasurer of the Navy: but we are desirous of holding out to reprobation, all outrages to truth, fairness, and decency.

'Yourself (says this writer, addressing Mr. Sheridan,) Mr. Fox, and all the other persons mentioned by Mr. Paul, these are the delinquents who justly merit the execration of the measure against the Marquis Wellesley; and who I trust will, one day, receive the reward due to the most diabolical conspiracy ever hatched in or out of Hell.'

This conspiracy is no other than the inquiry into the conduct of Lord Wellesley, while Governor General of India! Is this language to be used, when speaking of a Parliamentary proceeding?

Alluding to the opposition at the same period, the writer designates it as 'a sanguinary faction, then in open hostilities to the existing government of the country.' He then goes on thus; 'Mr. Pitt's death furnished fresh employment for the exercise of Mr. Fox's friends, the pursuit of the Marquis Wellesley was abandoned, upon the same principle that pirates quit the chase of a single vessel for the sanguinary hope of plundering a whole fleet; Mr. Fox, yourself, and others of your party, promptly determined that the *certain* plunder of the nation was preferable to the risk of pillaging an individual.'

The affair at Maidstone is here again brought into discussion; and the author inserts, in the text of his work, part of a most detestable treasonable paper, which was found on O'Coigley, and by which he was convicted. He then states that, if Mr. Sheridan was ignorant of the paper in question, this ignorance must have been caused by a sort of miracle. His words are, 'if it were possible such a miracle could have happened.'—Construing the testimony given by Mr. Sheridan and others in favour of O'Connor, as extending to the nefarious proceedings in which it was discovered that this person had been engaged, the writer hazards the following astonishing exclamations: "Gracious God! are the men who could maintain such damnable doctrines, such hideous principles, permitted to enjoy the privilege of plundering this country? Are the men who openly applauded an invitation to the execrable Directory of France to invade England, the only men who can be found to defend the purity of its constitution, and the happiest monarchy in the known world? If the people will submit to such insults, if they will prepare their backs for packsaddles, and like patient asses crouch to the burthen, why, let them;—but let them not complain, at the same time, that their labour and industry is not sufficient to procure a meal's meat twice in a week!'

Would

Would this writer invite a popular insurrection?—The parties here libelled are too magnanimous to subject the libeller to the animadversion of the law: but we invoke the public to discountenance in a marked manner the ruffian spirit which is breathed in these coarse pages. Rarely has it been our lot to have our eyes offended by any thing more approaching the filth of Hebert and Marat, and their sanguinary associates.—Of the author's violations of grammar, metaphor, and even orthography, it were too much condescension to take notice. Jo.

Art 33. *The State of the Nation;* in a Series of Letters to his Grace the Duke of Bedford. By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. pp. 172. 4s. sewed. Jones. 1805.

We have heard this upright and patriotic character classed with those who studiously labour to confound all social distinctions, to hold up public men to popular envy and jealousy, and to strip them of public confidence; and who deem it patriotic to traduce and vilify those whom their rank, station, and tried character point out as the most fit and proper to direct the affairs of their country. The first page of this tract sufficiently refutes such a calumny, and indicates that a very different disposition and temper animate the bosom of this veteran friend of liberty.

'MY LORD,

'The blood of a *Russell*, shed for his country's freedom, was not, we believe, shed in vain. The remembrance of such an event might not, it is true, have been necessary towards forming the *Russells* of the present day, to what we have seen them; because morality, a sound understanding, and the right exercise of that understanding, ought to be of themselves sufficient to make a man the friend of liberty, and a promoter of the happiness of his species: but doubtless a zest is given to patriotism, when it recalls to public recollection an illustrious ancestor, who, for the eminence of his virtue, fell a sacrifice to the malice of a tyrant, and the profligacy of his satellites.

'I address you, my Lord, and in your person I wish to address whatever is independent and high-minded of the nobility and gentry of our land; whatever there is among them of public spirit, or even of ordinary prudence, or of regard for posterity; since my subject is not only the present *state of the nation*, but to what that nation must rapidly degenerate, unless the counsels of better times be again resorted to; and disregarded, but sound maxims of government be once more revived.'

Many of the topics, which are discussed in these pages, are now rendered deficient in interest, by the political changes which have taken place, since they were written; while others are interspersed through them, which are of deep and general concernment, and which well merit attention from all lovers of their country: but we cannot help thinking that even this zealous reformer will admit that, in the present crisis, it would not be wise to bring them under discussion. It is impossible, we think, to controvert this remark, however lamentable it may be on every ground. Jo.

Art. 34. *England's Ægis*; or, The Military Energies of the Constitution. By John Cartwright, Esq. Vol. II. Third Edition.

The

The First Edition made one part of An Appeal, Civil and Military, on the Subject of the English Constitution. 8vo. pp. 156. 4s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1806.

The remarks which we made on the preceding volume of this work* are applicable to the present. The same spirit, the same good intentions, the same diligence and ability, which were conspicuous in the one, are also characteristic of the other. Some positions, however, which occur in these pages, we deem very questionable: but even the statement of them could not be contained within the space which we can allow for publications of a temporary nature. The comparison which the author draws between his own system of national defence, and that of the Duke of Richmond, will be found not less interesting than it is candid. The justice which he so liberally renders to his predecessors on the same subject, the Earl of Liverpool, and Sir William Jones, bespeaks a highly honourable mind, and proves that the zeal of the patriot is untainted by the jealousy of the author. Jo.

Art. 35. *The Present Relations of War and Politics between Great Britain and France.* Being a Reply to the Insinuations of the French to the Disadvantage of the Military Spirit of the British Nation, stating the Resources derived from its Character, with the Motives for entertaining no apprehensions from the Enemy: and exemplifying by History the Hostile Disposition of the French towards other Nations, and the means of resisting it successfully. By John Andrews, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 119. Robinson. 1806.

The very ample bill of fare, which the title page exhibits, fully apprizes us of the particulars of which the entertainment consists. If it be not so sumptuous and exquisite as the titles of the cook might lead us to expect, it is substantial and wholesome, grateful to the English palate, and of easy digestion. It is the Doctor's object to chase despondency from British bosoms, and to inspire the nation with confidence in its own prowess and resources. He brands with ignominy those who would now divide and distract us; and he justly represents it to be our wisdom, while the crisis lasts, to present the bold front of an united people to our insolent enemy. Do.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 36. *A new and enlarged Military Dictionary*, or alphabetical explanation of Technical Terms; containing a succinct account of the different systems of Fortification, Tactics, &c. Also the various French phrases and words that have an immediate, or relative, connection with the British service, or may tend to give general information on military subjects in either language. By Charles James, author of the Regimental Companion, &c. 2d Edition, 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Egerton. 1805.

No doubt can be entertained that this very bulky volume affords a great variety of useful information, nor that it may also be defective in many particulars. The author hopes that the former will be allowed, and he himself candidly admits the latter. Indeed, a summary of the most extensive and laborious examination of the work may be

* See Rev. Vol. xliii. N.S. p. 430. also Vol. xxx. p. 341.

 comprized

comprized in those few words.—In these military times, great numbers of individuals may consult such a work as this with interest, and profit: but it is impracticable for us to enter into a minute survey and make a detailed report of its contents, balancing its merits and defects.—Much labour, at least, seems to have been bestowed on it. G.2

Art. 37. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Wm. Windham*, on the Defence of the Country at the present crisis. By Lieut. General Money. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1806.

The advice and opinions of General Money merit regard, because he is an officer who has seen service, and, if we mistake not, bore a command in the French armies at the commencement of the revolution; in consequence of which he became acquainted with the tactics and discipline of those troops. In the present pamphlet, however, he is too great a favourer of fortifications, or at least of Martello towers, redoubts, entrenchments, &c. to coincide with the judgment of many persons who would not depend on these aids. He advises the occasional erection of Martello towers, to command the great roads by which an invading army must march towards London, and the formation of strong entrenched camps on the south side of the metropolis: conceiving that London would undoubtedly be the first object of an invader, and that the loss of a general battle would occasion the fall of that city.—To the bodies of Volunteers, somewhat modified, he is not adverse: but he agrees with many others in particularly approving of their being trained to act as *Irregulars*.

Some remarks occur on the subject of artillery, which appear to be judicious. The French Canoniers, says the General, 'are considered the best in Europe, but it is not so. That opinion proceeds from their *cannon* being better than the guns used by other powers.' The details on this branch of discussion, and on the other topics introduced by the author, we recommend to consideration from a perusal of the pamphlet at large. D.o

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 38. *A Discourse, occasioned by the Death of the Right Honorable Charles James Fox*, delivered at the Unitarian Chapel in Essex Street, October the 12th, 1806. By Thomas Belsham. The Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

A very decorous, respectful, and modest tribute to the memory of our lamented statesman; which arises from no indirect or unworthy motive, but proceeds from the heart, is penned with neatness and elegance, and bespeaks a judicious, accomplished, and richly furnished mind. The professions of diffidence with which the eulogist enters on his subject prepossess us in favour of his attempt; and indeed the design is that of no ordinary hand, and the outlines are such as few masters would blush to own. The sketch, if it be not quite *ad vivum*, (and where is the pencil that shall be found equal to that arduous task!) exhibits the genuine traits of the original.

In this eulogium, the style of the illustrious subject of it seems to be happily copied. Fastidious, indeed, must be those readers who are not pleased with this discourse; and who do not sympathize with the sentiments and join in the testimonies of the Reve-

Reverend Preacher. We think that he satisfactorily vindicates the part which he acts on this grave and solemn occasion; and in our opinion, while an eminent and venerated personage is thus honored, the office of the sanctuary is not degraded. Jo.

Art. 39. Preached in the Church of All-Saints, Wainfleet, in the county of Lincoln, June 4th, 1805, to the Wainfleet Corps of Volunteer Infantry, by the Rev. Peter Bulmer, A. B. Vicar of Thorpe. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Dedicating his discourse to his *much respected Neighbours and friends*, who form the above mentioned Corps, Mr. Bulmer speaks in high terms of their loyalty and patriotism, and of 'the harmony and good will by which their bond of union has been cemented and confirmed.' In an advertisement which follows, he takes notice of the objections, which have been made by the respected brethren of the denomination of Quakers, to these war-associations; and which, on application to one of their number, were in the present instance renewed. To answer and remove them form one design of this writer; and the argument is on the whole well sustained. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a polite letter from M. Mendoza de Rios, relative to our account of his Tables for Navigation, Rev. October last. With those who have read that critique, and are interested in the subject, the subjoined extract from this letter needs neither introduction nor explanation:

'The Monthly Reviewers, in their article relative to my Complete Collection of Tables for Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, having made some observations on a passage in my paper published in the *Connoissance des Temps* for 1793, founded on the doubtful sense they find in my expressions, I think it right to declare, and request them to publish, that I never had the most remote pretension to the invention of Mr. Brinkley's rule to improve and render more general Douwes's method to ascertain the latitude by two altitudes and the interval of time between the observations, as annexed to the Nautical Almanacks for 1796, &c. The first notion I had of that rule was communicated to me in 1791 by that learned gentleman, and indeed my writing the above mentioned paper was occasioned by the remark made on it by a great astronomer, who thought that the usual method for computing the latitude by double altitudes wanted still a farther improvement, to attend to the variation of the Sun's declination in the interval of time; a deficiency which I undertook to supply in that little work. Since that time, I do not recollect even to have mentioned the rule alluded to in any of my publications; but, in such a case, I do not wish to confine myself to the evidence of my long silence and every other concurrent circumstance, and I add this explanation for the purpose of establishing truth with that perfect fairness from which I have never intentionally deviated.

'Every thing which comes from the pen of Mr. Cavendish is interesting, and I take this opportunity of stating, that the Tables announced by that learned and ingenious gentleman in his P. S. to my paper in the Philosophical Transactions for 1796, are to be found at the end of my Tables published in 1801, a work which does not seem to have come under the notice of the Authors of the Review.'

In

In the remaining part of this communication, some slight objections which we made against M. Mendoza's method of determining the latitude are removed. We took an instance from the Nautical Almanack for 1800, and we relied on the exactness of the latitude (52° 10′) there given: but that latitude is inaccurately put down, and, as M. Mendoza points out to us, the Inaccuracy is corrected in the 27th page of the 3d edition of the Requisite Tables. In that edition, the latitude = 52° 7′ 26″ N, and according to M Mendoza's method, and by a computation which he has obligingly sent to us, it is 52° 7′ 22½″. In the instance taken from Mr. Lax's paper, we acknowlege that we must have committed some oversight, since by M. Mendoza's computation the latitude is 52° 12′ 30,″ within 10 seconds of the true result.—The letter contains some other matters of no very great moment: but we are obliged to M. Mendoza for its accompaniment of a copy of his *Tables useful in Astronomy and Navigation*, printed in 1801. These last we had not seen when we examined the Tables from which the criticism above mentioned, and the present correspondence, have originated. We feel great pleasure in now bearing additional testimony to the merit of a work which, from its ingenious and elaborate structure, is so highly creditable to its author; and which, from its general and great utility, so forcibly claims the patronage of the public.

R.W.

Theophrastus junior, author of a "Letter to Lord Moira," wishes to rebut our observations on the circumstance of his statements being anonymous, in our last No. p. 327: but we abide by our remark, and must extend it to his letter to us. He mistakes, however, in supposing that we accused him of betraying confidential intercourse: we spoke only of his attacks on character being made in the dark; and it was not necessary for him to assure us that, being no associate of the Baronet to whom he alludes, he could not betray his confidence, but mentioned only a fact which he witnessed in a public coffee-house at Paris. Nor is this re-iteration any evidence, for again we say, *who* makes it?—It would be idle to enlarge on a proposition which is self-evident.

D. S. P. may be right in applauding the *design* of the poem which he recommends, but we cannot join in his praise of its execution, and m y therefore be excused from taking farther notice of a composition which does not strictly come before our tribunal—This note has been mislaid.

R. B. is totally wrong in his conjectures and his inferences; and so he is likely to remain, if he continues to wander in a labyrinth in which we are sure that he can have no thread to guide him.

*** The APPENDIX to this volume of the Review will be published on the 2d of February, with the number for January, and will consist of *Foreign Literature*, as usual.

☞ In the last Number, p. 253. l. 21 for 'and that we must not,' r. *but that they do not*. P. 304. l. 7. for 'to,' r. *from*.

Errors. pp. 360, 363, 366, 387, 396, 397, 410, 419. 431, 432.

THE APPENDIX TO THE FIFTY-FIRST VOLUME OF THE MONTHLY REVIEW ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Oeuvres Choisies et Posthumes*, &c.; *i e.* Select and Posthumous Works of M. DE LA HARPE, of the French Academy. With a Portrait of the Author. In Four Volumes. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 1l. 12s.

THE rank which was so justly assigned to M. LA HARPE among the literati of France, his various works, (many of them possessing high utility and value,) his sufferings in the course of the revolution, and the change which they occasioned in his religious sentiments, render his story in a high degree interesting to curious readers. He claims attention as the associate of *Voltaire*, *D'Alembert*, and *Condorcet;* as an Academician of great celebrity, as a dramatic writer of eminence, and as a first rate critic. During the best part of his life, he was a disciple of the French philosophy, and an active and zealous disseminator of its principles; and he affords, we believe, the only instance of a convert made from that sect to Christianity. *Malesherbes*, and others of the same fraternity, are said to have repented of the political principles which they once diffused, or at least of the conduct which they had pursued: but we have no evidence with respect to them of any farther change.

Of so eminent and remarkable a character, then, we gladly receive the memoirs which introduce the volumes before us; and from which we shall gratify our readers with an abstract.

Jean François De La Harpe was born at Paris in 1740. Though his family was noble, he was left a helpless orphan, and owed his education to the compassion of a few pious persons, who placed him in one of those institutions for the relief of such objects, with which Paris at that time abounded. The same benevolent individuals afterward obtained his admission into the University on a charitable foundation; and here it was that his superior talents discovered themselves, and encouraged the most flattering hopes of his future eminence. His existence depended in a manner on his success; and the colleges, it is remarked, owed their celebrity principally to young men in this predicament: since it rarely happened that, thus destitute of friends and depending on their own efforts alone, they failed to distinguish themselves by their talents or their industry. La Harpe, however, in the more early stages of his Academic course, gave no promise of the great parts which he afterward displayed. He could not struggle with that which he did not understand, and his fine talents disdained the drudgery of treasuring up mere words: but, when he reached the higher classes, his excellent understanding and his exquisite imagination placed him in the foremost rank; and for two years together he gained all the first prizes, a degree of success which was without example. The Academic triumphs of the young collegian were reported in the circles of society; he was made the topic of conversation; and it became so much the fashion to have him in parties, that he was known in the world before he had finished his studies. This flattering notice did not intoxicate him, for he continued his pursuits, and did not rest satisfied with his college atchievements.

At the age of seventeen, the young La Harpe was introduced to *Diderot*, who had recently published his Treatise on Dramatic Poetry; and he thus speaks of the interview: "My mind being full of our best classics, and my taste having been formed by the best masters, I exceedingly disliked his work, and stated to him my objections to it with all the tenacity which belonged to my age and my natural turn. He patiently heard me, and our discussion extended to four hours, but he was unable to remove my impressions. I am by nature an enemy to affectation, and I could discover nothing natural in this man: he displeased me; and he left on my mind the conviction of his being a missionary of bad taste, to which he would never be able to make me a proselyte."

When twenty-two years old, La Harpe presented to the theatre his very successful tragedy, *the Earl of Warwick*, the merits of which are not unknown to the English reader. We have,

have, on the present occasion, been so much struck with some of the remarks in his dedication of this piece to *Voltaire*, that we shall insert them here. After having paid the celebrated veteran some very high and elegant compliments, he thus proceeds:

'You have told us, Sir, that theatrical pomp adds greatly to the interest of a piece; and you have recommended this accessary, which had been too much neglected before your time. What has been the consequence? Tragedy is become a series of moving pictures; the representation is crowded with events, combats, and poignards; and in these works all depends on the acting and the decoration. Writers have forgotten what you have said a hundred times, that, without interest and style, these foreign ornaments produce only a momentary effect, and that no trace of a performance of this sort survives the dropping of the curtain.—Amid the prevalence of this bad taste, I have hazarded a drama of extreme simplicity. It has been my opinion that crowded events interest curiosity alone, while they leave sensibility untouched; that, in order to excite durable emotions in the audience, the utmost simplicity in the action is necessary, and that at each successive moment it ought to grow more interesting; that it was necessary that the different sentiments of the several characters should deeply affect the minds of the hearers; and that tragedy was not merely the art of making men act on the stage, but that of making them speak. Yes, I am not afraid to repeat it, eloquence alone can animate tragedy; this is what characterizes the great masters, and this is the feature which distinguishes you.'

It was the fashion at this time to require, in every new piece, brilliant and striking passages, which were to be pointed, and to embrace general maxims,—*des vers saillans, des vers à retenir*. On this subject, the disciple thus addresses his great master:

'When you shall have read this tragedy, you will not be surprized that it has been charged with a total deficiency of these striking lines, these lines for recollection. You will compliment me on the omission of them. You will agree with me that lines depending on connection are profoundly felt, are a hundred times worth those which, however brilliant, damp the aggregate interest; and that the style which gives life to the piece is of far more value than that which makes the actor dazzle. Give me the lines, the merit of which consists in ease and simplicity, which inversions do not distort, nor epithets encumber; which render the piece intelligible, and causes us to attend to it with unbroken satisfaction; yes, when this simplicity moves the soul, I prefer it to the grandest thoughts. High matter should be expressed in simple terms. Such, Sir, are my notions; and it is from you that I learned them.'

The dutiful pupil here probes to the quick the faults of the master, though he is all the while complimenting him, and pressing his name and authority on the side of pure classical taste,

against a sort of corruption which the sage had introduced. The wary veteran, in a masterly answer, readily admits that theatrical pomp is to be considered only when it forms a necessary part of the subject, that otherwise it is mere decoration, that incidents have no merit unless they are natural, and that declamations are puerile, particularly if they border on bombast:—but the *vers à retenir* were too much in his own manner to receive condemnation from his lips, and he disposes of the point with that consummate address of which he had so often shewn himself master. "You claim merit (says he) for not having composed lines to be committed to memory; while I, Sir, perceive that you have written many such." He then proceeds to a defence of them, in which we discern all his exquisite art: but still it is insufficient to cover from view the sophistry which pervades it.

Of this tragedy, it may be said that it is great as a first essay, that the design is excellent, and that the taste which it displays is above controversy: but it wants that grandeur of conception and that ardour in the thoughts which characterize the great masters.

The failure of his next dramatic performance plunged La Harpe, who was now married, into those difficulties with which it is so generally the fate of literary men to struggle. In this situation, the doors of Ferney were thrown open to him, and the young couple became the guests of its Lord during thirteen months. If the beneficent host levied the tax of deference on his visitors, it was impossible that the rising candidate in the career of letters should not derive the greatest advantages from the commerce which arose out of the protection thus benevolently extended to him.—The good offices of *Voltaire* with the Duc *de Choiseul*, and farther attempts at the drama, were however ineffectual; and the youthful aspirant was obliged to depend on exertions of another kind. *Lacombe* engaged him to write in the *Mercure*. This journal, the sole merit of which had been that of favoring the opinions then in vogue, being placed under the direction of La Harpe, soon exhibited a new aspect. Sound criticism, luminous discussion, and profound and comprehensive views, supplied the place of the shallow declamations with which it had till that time been filled. Though he continued his labours in the *Mercure*, he did not neglect the theatre; and his *Melanie*, the object of which was to expose the mischiefs of monastic institutions, met with considerable success. In his *Barmécides*, he delineates the generous mind; and *Joan of Naples* exemplifies the mischievous consequences of the passions: while in *Menzikoff* we witness the fall of a powerful minister, accompanied with resignation that is unexampled. Having

In early youth, first Dorilas I knew,
And with our stature our affection grew;
From childhood's date his sympathy I claim,
Our infant sports, our pleasures, hopes, the same.
To me his dearest secrets he'd rehearse,
I me, first confidant of love & verse:
But riper years a change to habit brought.
The vortex of the giddy world he sought;
My tranquil breast to solitude inclin'd,
Here best I gratify'd my studious mind:
Yet still the secret intercourse was mine,
And with his friend he shar'd, my tavern wine.
But when admission to the toilette came,
And to his debts a Duchess lent her name
His manners cold rous'd friendship's proud alarm,
He saw repuls'd her kind extended arms,
I mark'd Hypocrisy's dissembled smile,
Promise feign'd, & hesitating guile,
Abstracted thought, th'assuming haughty tone,
Of fashion's image upon Candour's throne.
Then, Dorilas! I left thee with disdain,
Misled by fortune, insolent, and vain;
But of thy errors I with tears complain.

Mrs Elizabeth Moody

on a piece of paper.

panied with resignation that is unexampled. Having

Having for years manfully opposed the difficulties which straitened circumstances, his openness, his independent spirit, and the envy and jealousy of rivals, had accumulated on him, we at length find him an Academician, rescued from the uncertainties of a precarious existence, living in intimacy with every distinguished character in the French metropolis, and successively enjoying the friendship of *Turgot* and of *Necker*.

If La Harpe was on his guard against the faults of his master *Voltaire*, he never reached equal dramatic eminence, never rose to the same elevation, and never attained to the same lucid style. His genius, indeed, was not of the same order. Though he was master of a more easy and elegant diction than either *D'Alembert* or *Condorcet*, it does not appear that like them he could boast the highest attainments in the ocult sciences: but in judgment he was not inferior to either, while in correctness of taste he excelled them both, and well merited the designation bestowed on him of the French Quintilian. Of his claims in this respect we have had frequent occasions to speak; and though we did not always approve his decisions, we never perused them without instruction and pleasure. Most parts of the *Cours de Littérature* may be compared to the works of the great artists; they strongly attract the attention of all men; all feel delight in gazing on them; and true judges are never weary with studying and examining them.

M. *de Pezay*, whose name occurs in the story of *Necker*, had been the college friend of La Harpe, and the intimacy survived to a later period. The following pointed lines describe the occasion of its subsiding:

' Dorilas avec moi fut uni dès l'enfance.
Tout nous étoit commun, jeux, plaisirs, espérance:
J'étais le confident des secrets les plus chers,
De ses premiers amours & de ses premiers vers.
Il recherchait le monde, et moi la solitude;
Il aimait le fracas; je préférais l'étude.
Quelquefois cependant il venait en secret
Boire avec son ami le vin du cabaret.
Mais lorsqu'il fut admis à d'illustres toilettes,
Qu'une Duchesse un jour eut acquitté ses dettes,
Il ne fut plus le même; et son froid embarras
Etonna l'amitié qui lui tendait les bras.
Son sourire apprêté repoussa mes caresses:
Il me parut distrait; il me fit des promesses;
Je lui trouvai le ton beaucoup trop ennobli;
Je l'avais vu sensible, et le voyais poli.
Je m'éloignai bientôt: mon humeur confiante
Ne put souffrir longtems sa réserve offensante.

Je
See a translation of these lines annexed on a piece of paper.

Je laissai Dorilas, de lui-même ébloui,
Croire qu'un protégé valait mieux qu'un ami.
Cependant j'ai pleuré de son erreur funeste.'

It is not his high rank in literature, however, nor the honours to which it led, nor the valuable performances which he added to our learned stores, that principally distinguished La Harpe. The circumstance which gives the most peculiar interest to his annals is his conversion, in advanced life, from French infidelity to Christianity, or rather to the Romish faith. In this conversion, we apprehend, the sober and enlightened friend of religion will see little to please or to edify him. The instance is not that of inquiry producing rational conviction; the change is not the result of research and reflection; it is instantaneous and miraculous; and nature is put out of her course in order to beget a single confessor to the falling church. It seems as if there were magic in words, and as if the passages in pious books had the effect ascribed to the *Sortes Virgilianæ:* but the whole is unintelligible to those who have not been initiated in the mystic jargon of fanaticism. We shall, however, submit to our readers the relation of the matter as it is here given.

La Harpe hailed the commencement of the revolution; and during the first two years of its course, he was its advocate. Under the reign of terror he was arrested, and lodged in the Luxemburgh; and in this situation he became very disconsolate. We are told that he did not feel his principles adapted to give relief, in the conjuncture in which he found himself; and a friend, who was anxious for his welfare, requested him to peruse the Psalms of David. Into these compositions he had never before looked, except with a view to discover poetical beauties, and they were very little in his recollection. Fearful of offending the philosopher, and of stumbling as it were at the threshold, his friend requested him to peruse them as a resource for killing time; and in order to fix his attention more on the sacred compositions, he was requested to compose a purely literary comment on them. He undertook it. Scarcely had he begun, before he discovered in the Psalms a number of beauties of a superior order: this persuasion continued to gain strength; and farther perusals soon fortified it. From this commentary, originating in a mere regard to friendship, and afterward pursued from pious zeal, was formed the preliminary discourse prefixed to his translation of the Psalter, the first work in which he announced his conversion. We now come to his own account of that memorable event.

'I was alone in my prison in a small dark chamber, very sorrowful. I had for several days been reading the psalms, the gospels, and some

some good books. Their effect had been rapid, though progressive. I was already restored to the faith, I saw a new light, but it terrified me in shewing me an abyss, that of forty years of error. I saw all the evil, but no remedy. Nothing around me offered to me the succour of religion. On one side, my life was before my eyes, such as it appeared by the torch of divine truth; and on the other, death, such as was then inflicted, and which I expected every day. The priest no longer appeared on the scaffold to comfort those who were about to die; he no longer ascended it, except to die himself Full of these distressing ideas, my heart had sunk within me; it silently addressed itself to God, whom I had just found, and whom I scarcely yet knew. I besought of him what I was to do, and what was to become of me? I had on my table the *Imitation*, and I had been told that I should frequently find in that excellent book an answer to my thoughts. I opened it without any view to a particular place, and fell on these words: *Behold me, my son, I come to you because you have invoked me* *. I read no more; the sudden impression which I experienced is beyond description; and it is not more possible to convey it in words than to forget it. I fell with my face on the ground, bathed in tears, almost suffocated, uttering inarticulate cries, and broken sentences. I perceived my heart lightened and dilated, yet at the same time ready to burst. A multitude of ideas and sentiments rushed on my mind; I wept for a long time; and I am without any recollection of the situation, except that it was something beyond comparison the most violent and the most transporting that my heart ever experienced. These words, *behold me, my son*, never ceased to sound in my ears, and forcibly to agitate my frame.'

Relations of this sort occur frequently in the works of the Puritans of former days, and in those of some sects of the present time.

On being released from prison, the new convert resumed his lectures at the Lyceum; where he displayed all the zeal which is natural to that character. The sensation produced by this novelty, the ridicule which it provoked, and the persecutions which it drew on this confessor in the cause of the Roman church, are well known to those who paid attention to events at Paris at that period.—In what is termed the revolution of the 18th of Fructidor, La Harpe was obliged to fly, in order to escape deportation: but he found a secure and commodious asylum near Paris, where he composed a part of his *Fragments of an Apology for Religion.* Soon after his release from his last captivity, his health rapidly declined, and early in the year 1803 he closed his mortal career. His conversation, we are informed, was in the highest degree pious and edifying on the prospect of dissolution, and he died a fervent votary of the Catholic religion.—The following is given as his dying confession of faith:

* Jesus Christ is the speaker.

'Having had the felicity yesterday of taking the holy viaticum, I consider it to be my duty to make this last declaration of the sentiments which I have publicly avowed for nine years, and in which I persevere. A christian by the grace of God, and professing the catholic apostolical Roman religion, in which I had the happiness to be born and educated, and in which I am desirous to live and die, I declare that I firmly believe all that the Roman church believes and teaches, the only church founded by Jesus Christ; that I condemn from my heart and soul all that she condemns, and in the same way approve all that she approves; and in consequence I retract all that I have written and printed, or that has been printed under my name, that is contrary to the catholic faith and to good morals: disavowing such works, and as far as lies in my power condemning and dissuading the promulgation and the reprinting of them, and the representation of them on the stage. I equally retract and condemn every erroneous proposition which escaped me in these different writings,'

The reader will make his own comments on the bigotry and abjectness of mind which a part of these declarations displays. They savour more of the *priest* than of the *ci-devant philosophe*.

Among the papers of La Harpe, was found one which detailed the particulars of a conversation that took place in 1788, at a dinner party of the *esprits forts* of that day, and of whom La Harpe was one. The discourse turned on the future triumphs of philosophy; and several of the guests were regretting that they should not live to see a consummation so desirable, and which was sure to happen. *Cazotte*, the author of the *Diable Amoureux*, a well known *illuminé*, was of the party; and having listened to all that passed, he at length broke silence, and told them that they should all, to their dire misfortune, witness the changes which they so anxiously desired. It happened that the persons present consisted of those who afterward fell the victims of the revolution; and among others who are enumerated, were *Condorcet, Vicq-d'Azyr, Nicolai, Malesherbes*, *Roucher*, and the Duchesse *de Grammont*. *Cazotte* not only apprized them all that they should die in consequence of the revolution, but particularized the manner of their deaths, predicted his own execution, and foretold the conversion of La Harpe, the transformation of the churches into temples of Reason, the fall of the king and queen, and the circumstance of the former alone being allowed to have a priest to attend him. This paper is gravely introduced by the biographer, without any suspicion intimated in regard to its authenticity; and our readers will, from this circumstance, form a judgment of the turn and spirit of the new associates of the celebrated confessor of the revived catholicism of France. Some honors ought to be paid to his memory. Whether in due time the old associate of *Voltaire* and *D'Alembert* will receive canonization from the degraded Pope, time alone must shew.

Of

Of the works here given to the public, and which consist of his Dramas, Eloges, fugitive pieces, Epistles in verse, &c. none are new except the *Apology*; and we shall therefore confine our farther remarks to that performance.

In his preface, the author makes this declaration:

'I am not in a condition to instruct those who know any thing; my book is addressed to those who like myself have not to this moment been desirous of knowing any thing; and it has occurred to me that the manner in which I have been instructed might prove instructive to them. A heavenly voice, when I least thought of it, spoke to my heart, and said: *Take, and read;* it was not the Apologists that were put in my hands; it was the Gospels, the Psalms, the Scriptures. They were not *Grotius*, *Abadie*, *Houtteville*, *Crousaz*, and *Bergier*, who enlightened me, or who were even the instruments of him who did enlighten me. They are absolutely unknown to me; not that I do not cordially believe them to merit the testimonies borne to them, but I have never for a moment felt any desire or need of reading them.'

Chapter I. of these *Fragments of an Apology for Religion* treats of the dignity of the soul, of final causes, of a state of probation, and of the divine dispensations down to the æra of the Christian revelation. Some fine and striking observations on the nature and high destiny of the soul, and some well turned declamation on the perishable nature of human concerns, impart interest to this head of the work. The remarks on scripture history are in a pious rather than in a critical style, and are better adapted to edify the believer than to reclaim the gainsayer; they are much in the loose manner of the Fathers, and of the Catholic Divines. On the subjects here touched, the author falls very far short of our great writers on the same topics, Addison, Clark, Baxter, Butler, and many others whom it were easy to name. He dwells much on the merit of acquiescing in what is revealed, and represents it as a duty to be contented with incomplete evidence. This is certainly rather a dangerous course, since it throws open the door to imposture; and the fathers seem only to have carried it to its fair extent in the maxim, *credo quia impossibile est.* Our incomparable Butler lays down the same doctrine, but treats it with great caution; and it is but justice to La Harpe to add that, at the close of this part of his labours, he qualifies it in the same manner.

'It is absurd,' he says, 'to suppose that God would tell us; *believe a revelation which your reason cannot comprehend, and the proofs of which it does not admit.* He is not capable of speaking thus; it is our pride only that he beats down, and never our reason. Supreme intelligence can take no delight in tyrannizing over that intelligence which emanates from itself. A fact important to all should be incontestible to the reason of all. Every man of good sense and good faith has a right to say to God: *I am ready to believe all that you shall be*

be pleased to reveal to me; and I am fully sensible that there may be, and that there ought to be, in this revelation, things above my actual comprehension, which I shall believe because your word cannot err But I ought to be sure that the word proposed to my belief is in fact yours; and here at least my reason ought to be the judge of the motives of credibility, without which I should no longer be an intelligent and free agent. It will be here seen whether I leave human reason in the possession of all its rights; it is reason that finds, in the fact of a revelation, proofs of a nature not to be disregarded without incurring the charge of the wildest Pyrrhonism, which rejects all certainty in regard to facts and the nature of human actions.'

The province of reason is here very properly defined: but, if there be sufficient evidence to satisfy reason that the scriptures contain a revelation from God, where is the necessity of that supernatural interposition to which the writer ascribes his conversion?

The facts in favour of revelation also are here in part very well argued.—The apostles and first teachers of religion, he properly assumes, if not divinely commissioned, must have been either fanatics or wilful impostors; and he ably shews the absurdity of each hypothesis:—but when he comes to treat of the objections arising from the constancy in the cause of their religion shewn by Jews and heretics, his page grows most disgusting; and it is impossible not to suspect him of disingenuousness, or to refrain from regarding him as a victim of the most senseless fanaticism. He has the assurance to relate as authentic the tale of the massacre of St. Maurice and the Christian Legion; and he gravely states at this day that it was not the council of Constance which consigned to the flames *John Huss* and *Jerome of Prague*, but the Emperor *Sigismund*, when he could not but know that it was with extreme difficulty that the holy fathers prevailed on the Emperor to commit that atrocity in violation of his pledged word. 'It is,' says this zealous new convert to a religion of charity, 'for those versed in public and in the civil laws to determine, whether the sentence was or was not a just one:' intimating but too clearly that he deemed it to have been a proper and fit decision in these circumstances. This meek disciple, while he vindicates intolerance in Christian princes, would not have life generally taken away, and would not allow them to inflict any penalty beyond banishment. He reproaches the Arians of the antient church with their persecuting spirit: but surely, surely, in abominations of that kind, no church has equalled the Western, to which he professes such deference and submission. His account of the rise and progress of Protestantism discovers the rankest bigotry. Nothing can be so blind as his devotion to the

the papal hierarchy in all its tenets, doctrines, and usages. It is less a Christian that we find in this old associate of *Voltaire* and *D'Alembert*, than a complete bigot of the Romish communion; and how far such an one is a Christian, let all true followers of the meek and lowly Jesus declare.—The miracles of the fathers are here placed on a level with the miracles of the gospel, and incredulity in regard to the one and the other is equally branded.

'It is in the mysteries,' observes this writer, 'that we find the stumbling-block which lies in the way of unbelievers. Original sin, a world condemned for the sin of one man, the incarnation, a God who descends to be made man, the passion, a God who dies on the cross, the eucharist, a God who becomes our food,—in these things behold the obstacle to the human mind, and that which revolts reason, because nothing is more natural to man than to take pride for reason.'

Those of our readers who have a taste for disquisitions on these high matters may consult the work itself for farther gratification. We confess that we feel no inclination to follow the author any longer.—The curiosity which his conversion some years since attracted, and the fame of the pious and edifying episodes which varied and enlivened the lectures of the Lyceum, and which were reported so deeply to affect the most fashionable audiences of Paris, induced us to look with some eagerness into this summary of the Lecturer's sacred labours. The conversion of a sceptic of the eminence and standing of this author is also no common occurrence, and we felt anxious to see how he acted in his new character. We had conceived that the spirit of inquiry, the dispassionate tone, and the modest style which philosophy affects, would have continued to distinguish the Christian Neophyte. Never were expectations, however, more completely disappointed. The meek disciple and the humble Christian appear not in these pages; which on the contrary present to our astonished view the intolerant zealot and the anathematizing devotee. On all the difficult heads of the Christian *credenda*, and on the most questionable tenets of the Romish faith, no professor or bishop ever decided more peremptorily and dogmatically than this proselyte from modern philosophism. Never did his old fraternity experience more contemptuous and insulting treatment than from their quondam associate; or were more unmercifully bespattered by a disciple of Ignatius, a follower of Jansenius, or a Doctor of the Sorbonne. It would seem as if their old companion thought that they were to be reviled and scolded into conversion, and as if he deemed reproaches and contumelies the most effectual means of bringing men over to the

true

true religion. If indeed such are the methods judged most effectual to propagate the faith, then was the author before us intitled to rank high among its apostles.—Taking a dispassionate review of these effusions, we are warranted in declaring that of dogmatism they display much,—of information and argument, little,—and of the spirit of genuine religion, nothing.

Jo.

ART. II. *Memoires Historiques, Politiques, et Militaires*, &c.; *i. e.* Historical, Political, and Military Memoirs of the Comte DE HORDT, a Native of Sweden, and a Lieutenant-General in the Prussian Army; digested by M. *Borrelly*, Member of various Academies. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Conchy.

To the reader who has a tolerable acquaintance with the history of modern Europe, and who is pleased with relations which elucidate the transactions of the last century, civil and military, if composed in an agreeable and interesting manner, the present volumes will afford considerable gratification. The life which they describe was in itself eventful, and was connected with proceedings of the highest importance. It brings under our view the policy and distractions of Sweden, the successes of Marshall Saxe in the latter years of the war of Maria Theresa, the events of the seven years' war, the politics of the Court of Petersburgh, and the administration of the great Frederic from the peace of Hubertsburgh to that of Teschen.

The tyrannical government and brutal manners of Charles XI. of Sweden, as well as the little promise displayed during the youth of his son and successor, are familiar to those who are conversant with Northern history; and of the story of Charles XII. who can be ignorant? It has been told in a style of matchless eloquence.—We are nevertheless tempted to abstract a few anecdotes of him which are related in these pages.—It is well known that his indolence and indifference in his tender years had very generally excited opinions which were highly disadvantageous to him. His grandmother Edwige-Leonora of Holstein was regent during his minority; and this ambitious Princess exerted every effort to hold him at a distance from business, leaving him no resource but that of reviewing his troops or sharing in their exercises. One day, on his return from manœuvring several regiments, the Counsellor of State, *Piper*, observed that he was plunged in a profound reverie. *Will your Majesty*, said he, *permit me to ask what it is that renders you so serious, and of which you are thinking?*

ing ?—I am thinking, replied the Prince, *that I feel myself worthy to command those brave men, and that neither they nor I ought to receive the commands of a woman.* In a very short time, *Piper* fulfilled the wishes which had been so laconically expressed. The states were assembled: the five counsellors of regency proposed to them to acknowlege the majority of the young king: no one ventured to oppose the suggestion, and the government was vested in him. Three days sufficed to Charles XII. and his minister, to strip the queen of all her authority.

It may be inferred from the present relations, that, even amid the unfavourable appearances of the early years of Charles XII., discerning persons might have discovered the presages of his future greatness. In order to make him acquainted with his own and the adjoining states, the work of *Puffendorff* was put into his hands; and he never laid it aside till he had finished it. He was taught German; and he learned it so completely that he was able to talk it as well as his vernacular tongue. Being told that the kings of Poland and Denmark were perfect masters of Latin, he applied himself to the study of that language, and attained a sufficient knowlege of it to be able to converse in it during the rest of his life. Did he hear the word Glory uttered, a sudden redness suffused his countenance, and fire darted from his eyes. *What do you think of Alexander*, said his Latin master to him, while explaining Quintus Curtius; "*What do I think of him*, he rejoined, *I earnestly desire to resemble him.*"...*But he lived only thirty-two years*...."*Is not that sufficient when one has conquered kingdoms?*" He was once amusing himself in his father's apartment with the plan of an Hungarian city, which had been just taken from the Emperor by the Turks, and with that of Riga, the capital of Livonia, conquered by the Swedes about a century before: he observed these words of Job at the bottom of the first map: "The Lord hath given, the Lord hath taken away, blessed be the name of the Lord;" and he immediately took up a pencil, and wrote at the bottom of the map of Riga, *God hath given, and the Devil shall not take it away.*

Charles XII. had scarcely mounted the throne when three neighbouring powers leagued together to make war against him. Frederic IV. king of Denmark his cousin, Peter I. Czar of Muscovy, and Augustus Elector of Saxony and king of Poland, thought to take advantage of his youth, little supposing that they had to deal with another Alexander. Livonia, Carelia, the Isles of Rugen and Oeland, the Duchies of Bremen and Werden, and other places, were all so many conquests which he owed to the military and political talents of his ancestors;

long

long possession had connected them with his crown; and the treaties of Munster and Oliva, with the terror of the Swedish arms, had consecrated his right to them: but the allied princes were sanguine in their hopes of depriving him of them. On hearing of the preparations of the confederates, the Swedes gave themselves up for lost. Terror and confusion reigned in Stockholm; and even the king's council itself was a prey to the most lively alarms. The great Swedish Generals, who had rendered their country illustrious, were dead; and a very unfavourable opinion prevailed with respect to the young monarch. It was therefore proposed in council to avert the storm by negotiation. The king boiled with rage at this suggestion. He had usually taken no part in the deliberations, but placed himself in the most careless attitudes, and appeared altogether indifferent to the proceedings: but on this occasion he suddenly sprang from his seat, and said in a commanding tone: *I have determined never to make an unjust war, and never to finish a just one but with the destruction of my enemies.* These words struck the assembly with astonishment, and his orders for the war were received with admiration. How well he kept his word at the commencement of his career is sufficiently known.

The father of the Count DE HORDT served in all the wars of Charles XII., and accompanied him till his return from Turkey. His services had raised him to the rank of General of Cavalry, and Captain-Lieutenant of the *Gardes-du-corps;* and when his constitution, worn out by fatigue and injured by wounds, rendered him unequal to farther service, the king invested him with one of the principal governments of the kingdom. Here the writer, who is his own biographer, observes: 'My father now thought only of making choice of a companion, whose sentiments, disposition, and character would render happy the remainder of his life. He married, when he was forty-six years of age; and an elder son, and the subject of these memoirs, with a daughter, were the fruits of this union.'

The author is of opinion that no persons are better formed for relishing the calm enjoyments of domestic life, than those who have experienced the agitations of the military profession.

'We are never more disposed readily to deliver ourselves up to the tender sentiments of husband and father, and to fulfil the duties of those respectable relations, than when a series of events and vicissitudes have placed us in a condition to appreciate the chimeras of ambition, and the insignificance of human concerns. No one ever entered more into the spirit of the conjugal and parental obligations than my father. A man of honor, a zealous patriot, a faithful and grateful subject, he also paid conscientious attention to the affairs of his

his government; and it may be said that he administered it with a wisdom and discretion which might have served as models. Having discharged his public duties, he lived for himself, his wife, and his children; and it was to our education that he devoted himself with uniform zeal. On the death of Charles XII. he was called to the senate, which obliged him to take up his residence in the metropolis.

'My brother and I were entered in the foot guards as private soldiers, in order that we might be instructed in all the duties of a military life, that we might be early accustomed to subordination, and that our minds might be strongly impressed with the idea, which unfortunately in many states is little regarded, that birth is never a title to the first distinction, and that it never can supply the place of merit.'

At the age of fourteen, the author continued a private in the guards. His vivacity was extreme; it was his rule to yield to every inclination of his heart; and, being his own master during a great part of his time, he plunged in follies which could not long escape the knowlege of his father.—The subsequent passages appear to deserve the attention of anxious and judicious parents:

'This disposition gave my father the utmost concern, and he firmly resolved to remove me from the gay world, and to procure for me occupations which should wean me from frivolities. A pair of colours in a provincial regiment was therefore procured for me.

'A stranger to every passion but love, my separation from Stockholm proved to me most painful: yet the chagrin which I experienced in removing from the capital, and in severing myself from the scene of all my pleasures, was somewhat moderated by the joy which I felt at attaining the rank of an officer. I was less flattered in future life when the rank of General was conferred on me, than with this first advancement.

'The regiment in which I had been placed was of the number of those which, according to antient regulations, was required to subsist itself by the produce of lands which were assigned to it to cultivate. Each person, from the Colonel to the private, had a piece of ground allotted to him to render productive, the quantity of which was in proportion to his rank. Thus transformed into a cultivator, and obliged to inhabit the confined domain which was appropriated to me, I now only studied how to make the best of my situation. My society was confined to that of the parish minister. I saw the officers only once in a month, and on the two days in the week in which we exercised. How different was this life to that which I led at Stockholm! I bowed under the yoke of necessity. Domestic and rural occupations were nearly my whole study, and the pleasure of the chace was the sole substitute for those of which I had been deprived. I began to reflect seriously, and gradually was enabled to derive satisfaction from those objects which at first, and for a considerable time, had occasioned me only pain and ennui

'Thus did I pass three years of my life; and never have I had cause to regret them; since this regimen placed me in a condition to reflect

reflect on my follies, to return from my deviations, and to form a rational plan of life for the future.

The assembly of the Diet in 1738 gave the young Ensign a pretence for applying for leave to visit Stockholm.

'The operations of this body,' he goes on to state, 'very much excited my curiosity; and I resolved to observe its movements with particular attention. At this period, the influence exercised in it by the cabinet of Versailles was irresistible.

'The preceding Diet had sought only to place public liberty out of the reach of any attack, direct or indirect, from the monarch; but it had not reflected that, by reducing too much the royal authority, it opened a door to a species of corruption of the most dangerous sort, namely, that which proceeds from without. A monarch who has in his power all the means of doing good is above the temptation of selling himself to foreign courts, because by so doing he compromises his own independence not less than he sacrifices the welfare of his people: but what guarantee is there for the upright and patriotic conduct of the members of a large assembly, who, having usurped the executive power, have to fear neither punishment nor prosecution; and who, being for the most part either poor, or of slender fortunes, are ambitious at all events of becoming rich *.

'All the friends of their country thought that, if under Gustavus Vasa, and even down to the time of the disasters of Charles XII., an alliance between France and Sweden was useful to both nations; if it were expedient while Russia lay overwhelmed with barbarism, and while the dominions of the House of Brandenburgh were of moderate extent; now, when we had taught the Russians to beat us, and they had enriched themselves by conquests from us, the line of sound policy was changed; and it became us to cultivate harmony with our mighty neighbour. This had been for a long time the prevailing opinion in Sweden, but the money of France had caused it to be disregarded in practice.'

The Count gives an interesting and detailed account of the profligacy of the Senate, and places in a strong light the war which it declared against Russia; which ended in the loss of a part of Finland, and was terminated by the peace of Abo. 'It was in this disgraceful contest that our youthful hero first fleshed his sword. His reflections on the impolicy of the war, and on the whole conduct of it, are sensible, judicious, and neatly stated.

Adolphus Frederic of Holstein, recently elected to the succession of Denmark, resolved to solicit the hand of one of the Princesses of Prussia; and the Count *Tessin* was the minister employed by the court of Stockholm to manage this delicate negotiation:

* The history of Sweden proves the justice of these reflections.

'His instructions were that he should in the first instance demand the Princess Amelia, who was equally distinguished for her beauty and the qualities of her mind: but, in the case of not succeeding in this application, he was to solicit for her sister the Princess Ulrica. The object of his mission, though intended to be kept a secret, reached Berlin before him, and was communicated to the two sisters and the whole court. Princess Amelia, knowing that the offer was to be made first to her, but aware that she must embrace Lutheranism, and abjure Calvinism, felt some scruples, which she imparted to her sister Ulrica. It is said that the latter, who was desirous that the preference should be given to her, after having applauded the delicacy of her sister's conscience on the subject of a change of religion from motives purely human, advised her to act in such a manner as could not fail to prejudice the ambassador against her. Be this as it may, it was the Princess Ulrica whom M. *de Tessin* demanded, on disclosing his character of ambassador, and for whom the consent of the king was granted.'

At this period, also, our gallant youth pledged his faith to an amiable damsel of exquisite beauty: but this attachment did not prevent him from soliciting leave to participate in the war which was carrying on between France and England in the low countries. The events of the last three years of this contest are admirably related, and no account gives us a more clear insight into the character of Marshal *Saxe*, or places his superiority in a stronger light.—It gratifies us to find that this impartial and discerning observer bears honourable testimonies to the valour of our countrymen. Speaking of the battle of Fontenoy, he says:

'In this memorable day, the two armies experienced great losses, but of all the allies the English suffered most. We cannot deny them this justice, that it was impossible to march up to an enemy with a countenance more firm, determined, and resolute than that which they displayed: they were cut to pieces, and the ground was covered with their mutilated bodies; they lost a multitude of officers: and after this bloody and terrible battle, all the great families of England were seen to wear mourning. I was sent two or three times to the Duke of Cumberland with messages from the Prince of Waldeck; and I always found him where the firing was hottest, and at the head of his infantry; neither he nor the corps which he commanded paid any attention to us; they fought as if they stood alone, and retired in the same manner. Two years afterward I had occasion to make the same observation at the battle of Lawfeld. This nation has something singular belonging to it, which distinguishes it from all others. Even their women, who follow the camp, preserve a *sang-froid* in the midst of the greatest dangers, and even when surrounded by the horrors of carnage. To instances of this kind I was witness at the battle of Fontenoy.'

While in the low countries, the Count *de Hordt* was in the Dutch service under the Prince of Waldeck, who commanded

the troops of the republic. He was high in the favour of this General, who raised him to the command of a regiment, which promotion he appears well to have merited. The Prince of Orange, about this time, having been invested with the Stadtholderate, the Count was also honoured with the confidence of his Serene Highness.

When at the close of the war he returned to Sweden, Count H. was married to the mistress of his heart, the beautiful daughter of Admiral Wachmeister; and he settled in the country. 'I loved,' he tells us, 'rural life, to which I had been habituated during a part of my early years; and I availed myself of its sweet tranquillity in order to improve my estates. I thus enjoyed seven whole years, free from the tumult of the world and the din of arms, amid which my life till that period had been almost entirely passed.'—His friends, however, remonstrated with him on this inactivity; and he says that, in obedience to their repeated representations, and against his own inclination, he quitted his retirement, and sought professional employment from the king, who placed him in his guards, with the rank of Colonel.

History has recorded the intemperate and indecent proceedings of the Diet of 1756. The unsuccessful attempts of the friends of the monarch to emancipate him, and the tragical consequences which followed, are generally known. The Comte DE HORDT was warmly attached to his sovereign, and espoused his cause against those who sought to annihilate his power and insult his dignity: but he appears to have been adverse to all rash councils, and to have been desirous not to precipitate changes which he saw that time was greatly favouring. Though he seems not to be chargeable with any blameable want of prudence, he was involved in the insurrection, and was obliged to fly for his life from Sweden, where several of his associates lost their heads on the scaffold. So implacable did the Diet become, that the Swedish ministers were instructed to reclaim the fugitives from every court in Europe; and a price being set on the head of the Count, Denmark, Hamburgh, the United Provinces, and the Emperor, refused him an asylum: but in Swisserland he found refuge. The Grand Duke of Russia, afterward the ill-fated Peter III., at length invited him in the most handsome terms to take up his residence in Holstein, where he was joined by his family.

While the Count was in Holstein, the celebrated confederacy was forming against the great Frederic; and the commencement of that unequal struggle took place, which secured such renown to the Prussian monarch, and which let loose in the north of Germany a flood of calamities. It was natural

that

that a mind so formed and so endowed as that of M. DE HORDT should cherish partiality for the king of Prussia; and his Majesty having made advances to engage him in his service at the end of the glorious campaign of 1757, they were readily accepted. He had not long moved in this career, however, before an unfortunate incident placed him a prisoner in the hands of the Russians. Differences in regard to the treatment of prisoners having arisen between the two courts, the Count (it may be conjectured) had the misfortune to be selected as the instance in which reprisals were to be made, for what was considered as unwarrantable treatment in the case of a Russian officer in the hands of the king of Prussia; or it may be that the sufferings of the gallant Swede were occasioned by applications from his court, on account of his share in the ineffectual attempt to liberate his sovereign. Whatever was the cause, he was transported to Petersburgh, threatened with imprisonment for life, and actually was confined in a close apartment in the citadel of that city for more than twenty-five months; denied the use of books, pen and ink, and cut off from all communication with the rest of the world, his friends being all the time ignorant of his fate. The spirited conduct of his Prussian Majesty, in throwing a Russian General and a Swedish Colonel, who were his prisoners, into close confinement, at length determined the Czarina to liberate her prisoner: but death intervened between her resolve and its execution. The accession of the new Emperor, however, soon set him free.—We here meet with a very interesting statement of the first proceedings of that ardent and ill judging Prince; and many proofs are given of his childish and weak admiration of the Prussian hero.

From the author's account of himself while shut up in the Russian fortress, we must infer that he was of an enviable temperament. Secluded from books, (except a few works of devotion which he had retained, and which were not taken from him,) and unable to furnish himself with a musical instrument, he continued to live, he says, without any kind of amusement or recreation:

'My life was very dull and monotonous: but I discovered that the effect of habit is great on the human mind. So tedious and wearisome did the first three months of my captivity appear to me, that I sincerely wished myself rid of the burthen of life: but the three subsequent I found infinitely less painful. I portioned out my day in the following manner: I rose at seven in the morning; and my breakfast occupied me till eight. I then dressed. I next read for an hour. Having finished my reading, I walked up and down my chamber for two hours, sometimes agitated by gloomy forebodings, at other times buoyed up by fond hopes. At one, a soldier on guard brought me my

dinner, and I staid two hours at table, dividing my dinner with my servants, who sat in a corner of the room, and with whom I conversed in order to kill time. At three I took a cup of coffee. From three to five I walked up and down in my chamber, as well to guard against gloomy thoughts as to preserve my health. At five I began reading which I continued till eight. A light supper terminated the day, and at ten I went to bed. Such was the occupation of each day while my captivity lasted.'

On his return, he was received in the most kind manner by his royal master; and he resumed his military duties during the remainder of the war, in which he acquitted himself with his usual ability. On one occasion, he received a grievous wound in the arm, which had nearly occasioned the total loss of it. At the close of the war, his regiment, being a new one, was disbanded, very much to his mortification; and his zealous interference in behalf of his officers on this occasion is highly creditable to his sense of honor and the feelings of his heart. He was himself raised to the rank of Major-General in the army, with a liberal pension; and he has since been promoted to be a Lieutenant-General. His turn for agricultural employments induced him to purchase an estate at a small distance from Berlin, between which places he now seems most pleasantly to divide his time, enjoying the confidence of his sovereign, and the particular regard and friendship of that great and interesting character Prince Henry.—The farther incidents of his life, to the period at which these memoirs conclude, consist of a journey to Sweden and Russia in attendance on Prince Henry, a second tour to Russia in the same character, a command under Prince Henry in the war of Bavaria, and an excursion to Paris. The narrative of the first tour is alone interesting.

If we could be convinced that many of the relations in these pages were not misplaced, and it could be shewn that they were fairly connected with the Comte DE HORDT, we should be disposed highly to commend the work: but, according to the view which we take of it, we are obliged to confine our praise to parts, and to describe the whole as formed according to no rules with which we are acquainted. It is fair, however, to observe that, while greater liberties are not here taken than are usual with writers of their own memoirs, the volumes yield to few in the same class with regard to instruction and entertainment. The story leaves on the mind an impression favourable to the understanding, the attainments, and the accomplishments, as well as to the dispositions and habitual manners of the object which we contemplate.

An English translation of these memoirs has been advertised

Jo. ART.

ART. III. *Memoires de Louis XIV.* &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of Louis XIV. Written by himself, composed for the Dauphin his Son, and addressed to that Prince; followed by several Fragments of Military Memoirs, Instructions given to Phillip V., Seventeen Letters addressed to that Monarch on the Government of his States, and various other inedited Pieces. Arranged and published by G. Z. M. DE GAIN-MONTAGNAC. Part I. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 10s.

THAT English historians and publicists remained for a long time unjust to the memory of Louis XIV. is now generally felt and acknowleged; and a character which has lately risen into notice, which has appalled the civilized world and ravaged a great part of it, has occasioned the *grand monarque* to be regarded as harmless and amiable, a benignant ruler, a mild master, and a most quiet peaceable neighbour. Various and able as have been the sketches of this high personage, we have seen none which appeared to us to have been drawn exactly to the life. The pencil of *Voltaire* heightened the advantageous and softened down the harsh features of the portrait. If that celebrated author can be considered as having attempted a likeness of Louis, it is unquestionably not a fair one, and indeed it is scarcely possible to recognize the original. The nice critic will discover in it perhaps more of art than deception, but it will completely mislead the inexperienced.

On the subject of the papers before us, the question which every reader will ask will be, are they authentic? As an answer, we submit to him the following facts and observations, which are stated in an advertisement prefixed to the present volume:

'The collection of the works of Louis XIV, which is to be found in the National Library, consists of three bound volumes in folio, and three large portfolios. The bound volumes include originals with copies taken of them by order of M. *de Noailles*, who deposited them in the library on the 3d of December 1749; and at the head of the first volume is this certificate: "I the undersigned, *Adrian Maurice*, Duke of *Noailles*, Peer and Marshal of France, certify that the late King Louis XIV. in consequence of the confidence with which he honored me, ordered me one night in the year 1714 to search his cabinet, and to bring him some papers which lay in certain drawers. His Majesty, having burnt a part of them, was induced by my urgent solicitations to permit me to preserve the remainder, which principally referred to his military campaigns. These monuments, and copies of them which I have taken in order to facilitate the perusal of them, constitute the three volumes in *folio* now deposited in the library. Done at Paris the 10th of October 1749.

Signed, the Marshal *de Noailles*.'

'The first two volumes consist only of orders of the day, the state of the troops, lists of officers, &c. The contents of the third are faithfully copied into the present sheets.'

The instructions to the Dauphin are written with the king's own hand. The Editor is of opinion that these underwent correction from *Pelisson* and *Racine* as they were composed, and that they were then returned to the august author, who introduced into them considerable changes; an instance of which is here cited, and which, as it forms a favourable specimen of these royal compositions, we shall transcribe. The passage in the text runs thus;

"We are not to conclude that, because a sovereign is not restrained in his power, he may allow himself full licence in speech. On the contrary, the greater and the more reverenced he is, the more circumspect he ought to be. Things which would be of no consequence in the mouth of a private individual often become important in that of a Prince."

Louis adds in the margin:

"Kings ought not in this matter so far to flatter themselves as to think that injuries of this kind are forgotten by the sufferers, or that they never hear of them. We have elsewhere said that all that kings do and all that they say are known sooner or later; and it is to be observed that even those who are made the confidents of these railleries are frequently hurt by them, even while they applaud them; because in general the objects of them are persons who like themselves are engaged in the service of the Prince, and because they naturally expect the like treatment in their turn. The least contempt shewn to a private individual inflicts on his mind an incurable wound. The idea which consoles a person under pointed raillery, or contemptuous treatment in general, is either the expectation that he will soon have an opportunity of retaliating, or a persuasion that little impression has been made on those who were witnesses to the injury: but he of whom the sovereign has spoken feels the evil the more poignantly, because he can look to neither of these consolations; for though he can speak evil of the Prince who has ill treated him, it must be in secret, and without its reaching him to whom it points, and which alone could render vengeance grateful: nor can he persuade himself that the remark which has been made will not be heard and regarded, because he well knows what attention is paid to the sentiments of men in power. A Prince cannot utter an indifferent word, which some who hear it do not apply to themselves or to others; and although in truth we are not obliged to have regard to all the impertinent conjectures formed on such occasions, the circumstance ought at least to render us circumspect in our conversation, and not to furnish a foundation for any thoughts in others to our prejudice."

'We may infer,' says the editor, 'from this addition, which is all in the handwriting of the monarch, that the labour of revisal was not very difficult; and every person, who reads these memorials, will be

be so fully convinced that no one but Louis XIV could have thought and composed the substance of them, that he will lay little stress on the circumstance of this or that writer having rounded some of the periods. I suspect that the literary reputation of Louis XIV is a subject on which no one has ever thought. That which interests and strikes in these papers is the clearness, the force, the depth of views and steadiness of principles, which they discover; principles which neither *Racine* nor any other man of letters would have so fully unfolded and diversified, since, not having directed his thoughts to the subject of government, he would be a stranger to its means and its difficulties. What subject, being desired to compose such instructions from his own stores, would have furnished those which we have now before us? Scores of pages are here included, which he never would have ventured to submit to the eyes of Louis, and which that Prince could alone have written. The reflections on the Clergy, on the dangers to kings from mistresses, the ideas on sovereigns in general, and above all on the distance which they should preserve towards their ministers, all these articles would not have been treated in the same detail, even though they had been demanded by the king himself. The writer would have touched lightly on that which might have hurt the monarch; and he never would have dared to have transmitted to the son, through the hands of the father, so striking a picture of certain defects under which the latter laboured, and of the inconveniences which attended them. These passages incontestibly prove the genuineness of the compositions. The seal of the master is discoverable in the manner of viewing objects, in certain modes of speech, which I have scrupulously preserved, and, if I may so express myself, in certain *royal ideas*, which the reader will be able to appreciate when they are submitted to him, but which a private individual, a man of letters, let him be ever so observant and ingenious, can neither conceive nor retrace, because they are not to be found within his range of thinking, and do not belong to his situation. It is on these internal marks more than on any certificates, and I will venture to affirm, more than on the character of the handwriting, that the authenticity of these memorials is to be recognized.'

We scarcely need observe that it is no easy matter to resist the force of these considerations; and we perceive no good ground for doubting that these papers contain the genuine effusions of the splendid monarch.

That the views of this prince were not confined to the superficies of things is confirmed by several parts of these memorials; and it is evident, we think, from observations made by him on a trivial incident.

"My brother, (says the royal narrator,) who seemed little disposed to devote himself either to useful or to agreeable occupations, thought fit to solicit from me that his wife might be permitted to use a seat with a back to it in the presence of the Queen. My friendship for him made me unwilling to refuse him any thing: but, considering the nature of his request, and the extent to which it

went, I informed him in the gentlest manner possible that I could not comply with it, and told him that I should always take pleasure *in distinguishing him from my other subjects*, but that I could never promise any thing that seemed to *place him on a level with myself*. I stated to him the numerous reasons which obliged me to preserve my rank; and I pointed out to him the objections to his claim, and how useless it would be in him to persevere: but all that I could say to him would neither content him nor my sister; so that from supplications they proceeded to complaints, then to tears, and next to pique, and from that time my brother chose to carry himself towards me in a way that would have made me apprehend serious consequences, if I had not well known the frame of his mind, and that of my own."

"No doubt, there is nothing of which we ought to be so jealous, as that pre-eminence which is the most enviable quality belonging to our situation. Every thing which points it out, or which tends to preserve it, ought to be held infinitely precious to us; it is not a matter of mere personal interest; we owe the preservation of it to the public, and to our successors. We cannot dispose of it at our own will; it is among the inalienable rights of the crown. They mistake grossly who suppose that pretensions of this sort are mere matters of ceremony, for, if they are duly considered, it will be seen that they lead to serious consequences. The people over whom we reign, being unable to penetrate the realities of things, ordinarily direct their judgments by external appearances; and by precedence and rank they generally regulate their respect and obedience. As it is important to the public to be governed only by one, it is also of consequence that he who discharges this function should be so much elevated above others, as to render it impossible to confound or compare any among them with him; and we cannot, without doing injury to the body of the community, rob its chief of any mark of superiority which distinguishes him from others.

"But forget not, my son, that, of all the badges of pre-eminence which you ought to secure, those will most advantageously distinguish you which proceed from your personal qualities.

"Elevation of rank is never more stable and secure, than when it is upheld by eminent merit; and it is this, without doubt, which has made some believe that it would be more advantageous to him who reigns, that those who stand near him by birth should be far below him in character."

After having dwelt, perhaps with too much complacency, on this notion, which founds the splendour of the monarch on the contrast between him and those who are next to him in rank, he concludes with these excellent assurances:

"Although these reasons seem plausible enough, and you may be led from the manner in which I have treated of them to conclude that they are not very remote from my own sentiments, do not by any means figure to yourself that, if one day you should have brothers, I shall, in order to give you the pre-eminence in its full extent, of which I have been speaking, studiously neglect their education. On the contrary, I shall endeavour to give you all the same instruc-

tions,

tions, and the same examples: but it is for you to distinguish yourself from them by the superior advantages which you will derive from these sources. It will be my care to educate *them* in all respects as well as yourself: but it ought to be yours to elevate yourself above them, and to make it appear to all the world that you merit by your virtue that rank which is assigned to you by the order of your birth."

These observations shew that, in the pomp and splendour which this monarch affected, he was systematic; and it would have been well if some of his later descendants had conformed to the instructions which he has here delivered.

Louis XIV. seems to have been fully apprized of a radical defect in the French character, which has frequently been noticed, which the event in former times has constantly verified, and respecting which it remains for futurity to shew whether its consequences are capable of being overruled. "I endeavoured," he says, "to establish among my new subjects, the reputation at once of my power and my bounty; and to wipe away from the French people the reproach so long alleged against them, that they know how to conquer but not how to preserve their acquisitions."

It may be acceptable to our readers to learn what were the sentiments which this monarch inculcated on his son in regard to the Clergy, who constituted a very important order in the state under the old government:

"I have never failed to observe to you, on any occasion that has offered, how incumbent it is on us to shew respect to religion, and deference for its ministers; particularly in matters which belong to their mission; that is to say, the celebration of the sacred mysteries and the preaching of the gospel. But, since churchmen are apt to pride themselves somewhat too much on the advantages of their profession, and to avail themselves of them to relax in duties which are most obligatory on them, I think it proper to inform you, briefly, how you ought to view this matter; which may assist you, in certain emergencies, to form resolutions the more promptly and to execute them the more firmly.

"In the first place, be persuaded that kings are absolute masters, and have at their full and free disposal all property as well ecclesiastical as civil, to make use of it on all occasions as sage economists, that is to say, according to the general necessities of the state.

"In the second place, it is fit that you should know that the mysterious terms of the franchises and liberties of the church regard equally all the faithful, whether laymen or persons in holy orders; who are alike the children of this common mother, but who exempts neither the one nor the other from their subjection to sovereigns, a subjection which the gospel expressly enjoins on them.

"Thirdly, that all which is said of the particular distinction of church property, and of the intention of the founders, is in no degree well grounded; since those who endowed benefices could not, in assigning

ing those funds, discharge them from the liabilities which naturally and civilly belonged to them; nor can those who possess them pretend to hold them with other rights and privileges, than such as accompanied them in the hands of those who gave them.

"Fourthly. If ecclesiastics have been hitherto permitted, in their assemblies, to determine the sum which they ought to supply to the wants of the state, they ought not to connect with this usage any particular privilege; for this practice prevails among the lay subjects in most of our provinces, and it was general in antient times, when a sense of probity induced each individual fairly to assess himself to the public burthens: but this certainly would not be done at the present day, and therefore laymen as well as Clergy have been reduced to compulsion when they have failed in their duty in this respect."

In making this quotation, we would not by any means be understood to approve the sentiments which it contains, but merely as displaying those which were entertained by this monarch, when in the prime and vigour of his life, before age and his mistresses had rendered him the prey of bigotry, and the dupe of designing and hard-hearted ecclesiastics: who induced him to revoke the edict of Nantes, and thus to occasion private misery and to weaken his kingdom in a degree that is beyond calculation.

The following lesson to a courtier may amuse, if it proves of no practical benefit to any of our readers:

'M *de la Feuillade*, who was afterward so much distinguished by the favours of Louis XIV, came one day to the house of a lady his intimate friend. Immediately on his entrance into the apartment in which he was received, he traversed the room with long steps, as if frantic; he threw his hat on the floor, and said aloud, "I cannot endure it any longer, I am hurt to the quick; I have had three brothers killed in his service; he knows that I have not a *sous*, and that it is *Prudhomme* who supports me, and yet he gives me nothing. Adieu, my good friend," added he, addressing the lady, "I am going to retire, I shall still find a cabbage." The lady replied, "you are insane; do you not yet know the king? He is the man of the most address in his kingdom; he holds his courtiers in due submission; and he sometimes makes them wait long: but happy are those whose patience he tries, whom at last he overwhelms with favours: wait yet a little, and they will assuredly be extended to you, for you merit them. But in God's name redouble your attentions, appear gay, and ask for whatever is vacant. If once he begins, and gives you a pension of a thousand crowns, you will become a grandee before two years pass over your head." He adopted the advice, paid his court as usual, and found it to answer. His good fortune did not fall short of that of *de la Rochefaucault*.'

The matter in these documents would of itself engage attention, but indubitably its highest merit is that of elucidating the

character of the celebrated personage from whom it is represented substantially to have proceeded.—The affinity of the ensuing article to the present induces us not to pursue any farther this important view of the subject, in treating of these memoirs. Jo.

ART. IV. *Oeuvres de Louis XIV.* &c. *i. e.* The Works of Louis XIV. consisting of Historical, Political, and Military Memoirs, Letters, and Miscellaneous Pieces. 6 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe, London, price 3l.

THE volume published by *M. de Gain-Montagnac*, which was the subject of the preceding article, contains enough to satisfy the curiosity of foreigners with regard to the productions of Louis XIV: but it is natural that the French should wish to have an edition embracing every production that came from the pen of the most magnificent of their monarchs. It is to be noticed, also, that it is not merely the completeness of the collection which recommends the volumes now before us, but a superior style of editing; the duty of which, it appears, has been fulfilled by *M. Grouvelle.* The text is more correct, is exhibited in a more inviting form, and is elucidated by fac-similes of hand-writing, prefatory compositions, comments, and notes. In consequence of these valuable additions, the materials of *M. de Gain-Montagnac*'s volume here extend to two: which are followed by a selection of the monarch's private letters addressed to the members of his family, Foreign Princes, Ministers, Ambassadors, Generals, &c. To these are added literary sketches, historical relations, and anecdotes intended to illustrate the memoirs and other writings of the king.

Prefixed to the first volume, we find considerations on Louis XIV. by *M. Grouvelle:* a disquisition which of itself imparts no small value to this extensive publication. The writer is master of his subject; and the relations are in the true spirit of history: nothing can be more impartial and dispassionate. He also discovers great penetration, discriminates nicely, and appreciates fairly; and his reader would find it difficult to refuse assent to his decisions. The masterly style of the *Siècle de Louis XIV.* the fine reflections, and the great proportion of truth, which that work contains, will ever cause it to be read: but we know not any production better calculated to prevent young persons from being misled by it, than the considerations before us.

'Alexander and Cæsar (observes the author) have not had more historians than Louis, but has his character been well appreciated? A few events of his reign have been much discussed, and the scenes of

of his private life have been exhibited to public view: but his natural powers and his acquirements have never been properly estimated. Inveterate bias has characterized his judges. Flattery raised Louis too high, and satire has degraded him too low. The Jesuits made an angel of him, and he was the scourge of the Jansenists. The Protestants never forget the affair of the *dragoonings*. Philosophy can never pardon his religious intolerance, his despotic pride, his ruinous pomp, his ambition, his wars, and the barbarities executed in his name. In the early part of his reign, the enjoyment of power and the desire of renown occupied his mind, but to these succeeded the lust of domination. His successes for a time intoxicated him: but after these came reverses of fortune, the evils of age, and habits of devotion, which gave a melancholy complexion to his latter days.'

This able painter states that the natural qualities of the monarch's mind were judgment, solidity, perseverance, and application. He was a great master of discretion, always assumed that gravity which so well conceals incapacity, and he was naturally silent, a turn which favours observation. To all these advantages, he added a fine person, with a noble and commanding air.

M. Grouvelle is of opinion that Louis was much indebted to the latter counsels of *Mazarin*. The Cardinal was at first contented to teach him how to act the king: but when no longer able to grasp power himself, he undertook in earnest to instruct his royal master in the duties of sovereignty. These lectures are said to have had the greatest weight with the youthful monarch, and he regarded the words of the dying minister as oracles. In his letters, Louis always calls him a *great man*. His character is here thus briefly and (we think) faithfully sketched.—'In discernment and versatility, few equalled him; an opinion which is forced on us by his dispatches, which are excellent in their kind. Vanity never misled his judgment. To place himself in the situation of another, and to enter into the interests, principles, or prejudices of him whom he sought to persuade, in this faculty no one ever exceeded Cardinal *Mazarin*.'—It is here contended that the Cardinal in effect continued to rule after his death, because his suggestions and counsels, when he was no more, still guided the young sovereign, and the ministers were of his nomination. It was he who recommended *Colbert*, who fixed the eye of the monarch on the proceedings of *Fouquet*, and who rescued *Lionne* from the disgrace of his friend. It was the advice of the Cardinal that occasioned Louis to raise to the ministry obscure men, rather than persons of high birth; and which caused the exclusion of the military and the ecclesiastics from the royal councils. The king learnt from the same instructor the loose

morality

morality on the subject of the obligation of treaties, which we find in his memoirs. His language on this point, it is justly observed, is not like the openness and loyalty of a young monarch, but better becomes the mouth of an old politician of the country of Machiavel. *M. Grouvelle* also supposes that it was a hint from his dying eminence, which lost to Anne of Austria her seat at the council.—In speaking of the early period of Louis's reign, and alluding to the Cardinal, the author applies to the departed shade the exclamation of Alexander's soldiers, *dead as he is, he still commands.*

Of all the able men who aided the views and efforts of Louis XIV. *Turenne* had the most influence, as he was unquestionably the most distinguished. A profound genius, sound judgment, long experience, and extensive and varied knowledge, rendered this officer equally qualified to direct various departments of government and to command armies. *Mazarin* himself had recourse to his advice, and appealed to his authority when he wished to influence the mind of the young king.—Very unworthy motives are here assigned, as determining his Majesty not to give *Turenne* a place in his council; while it is said of the veteran warrior, that he pleased his ostentatious master by his rare and singular modesty, and by the little store which he set on his own labours and counsels. The king consulted him on all matters of internal and external policy. His suggestions affected the instructions given to ambassadors; and he was often the sole depositary, except the king, of the secrets of the state. Many very important measures wholly originated with him. Yet in his funeral eulogiums it is the warrior alone that figures, and not a syllable is said on the qualifications of the statesman, in the pathetic and flowery discourses of *Mascaron* and *Flechier*. Perhaps, intimates the present writer, this silence was a sacrifice required by the extravagant pride of the monarch; who, wishing to have it supposed that all his measures sprang from himself, would with pain have seen the secret of his obligations to this great man communicated to the world.

The commentator maintains that Louis well understood the interests of his country in its foreign relations; though, as it often happens, that which he best knew was not that which he pretended best to know. His writings relative to war are not comparable to his political *morçeaux*; and we have reason for questioning whether he was competent to direct his Generals, though none for doubting that he could discuss the interests of the state with foreign ambassadors. This, it is contended, was no small merit; since in his time the art was more complicated and profound than it is in our days.

'During the last half of the eighteenth century, (says *M. Grouvelle,*) states, under the pretence of partitions, exchanges, cessions, and indemnities, on no other principle than the convenience of the strong, without any regard to the interest of the weak, and without even consulting them, seize and retain territories; a system, extremely easy for statesmen and ministers, compared with the complicated one which preceded it, and which was founded on a series of pre-existing treaties. Under this new system, public law is become a science of mere curiosity, and a sort of dead language more fit for antiquaries than negotiators. The respect paid to antient treaties, which has sometimes been called the positive law of nations, rendered it necessary for every statesman to be well acquainted with the public law of Europe: but now, when this law is no longer regarded, all that is necessary for a minister or plenipotentiary is an acquaintance with geography; and a well coloured and well engraved map is all the apparatus that he is required to carry with him.'

M. Grouvelle descants on this monarch's fondness for war, and records his death-bed confession, *J'ai trop aimé la guerre.* He properly notices that this lamentable partiality did not arise from a passion similar to that of gaming, a sort of natural disinterested love of the thing itself, without regard to its consequences; as was the case with Pyrrhus and Charles XII. and (as we have been told) with our deeply lamented and beloved Nelson, who appeared to be in a state of the highest felicity when an engagement was about to commence, and who seemed to be sorry when all was over. Nor was the predilection of Louis that which a great master feels for his art, as was the case of *Condé* and *Turenne.*

'Though not wanting in personal courage, he never risked his own safety. With the army, he soon felt tired, and exerted himself little: history speaks of his firmness, but is silent as to his exploits. In an action, he never stood the firing, nor dared the steel: nor was he ever present in a general engagement; the armies which he commanded seemed to avoid battle. His writings exhibit him scarcely as a connoisseur in this art, while he was surrounded by masters. It was not war that Louis loved, but the apparatus of power, with the splendor and bustle which accompany it, and are attendant on it.'

All this we believe to be extremely just, but it exhibits the vain and ostentatious prince in no very heroic light.

Of the indignation which Louis XIV excited in Europe, every reader has heard and perused much: but rarely could he find so neat and succinct a statement of the conduct by which it was provoked, as is to be found in these pages.

'His principal wars were four in number; in two of these he was the aggressor, and in the two others he acted on the defensive. Of the fifty-four years during which he reigned, thirty-one were occupied

cupied by war, or we should rather extend them to forty, since the nine years which followed the peace of Nimeguen were employed in bidding defiance to Europe by every species of provocation. Of these four wars, two unquestionably, viz. that which was intended to assert the rights of the Queen, and that of the Spanish succession, were derived from the system of aggrandisement of *Richelieu* and *Mazarin*. It was Louis who provoked the league of Augsbourg, and the grand alliance which he combated for ten years, to the ruin of the finances and prosperity of his country. The establishment of the chambers of re-union of Metz and Brisach: the king of Spain constrained to relinquish the title of Count of Burgundy, defied in his own ports, and his flag insulted; Strasburgh invaded and seized in the midst of peace; Italy alarmed by the acquisition of Casal; Luxemburgh invested and besieged without a declaration of war, on most flimsy grounds; the horrible bombardment of the city of Genoa; the Duke of Savoy ill treated; Catholic Europe offended by the injuries inflicted on the Pope, by the hostile entry of *Lavardin* into Rome, and by the violent deliberations of the French Clergy; Protestant Europe at the same time shocked by the persecution of the Protestants, and the repeal of the edict of Nantes; the Ottoman Porte braved by Du Quêne, who cannonaded Algiers, and who burned eight Tripoline vessels in the port of Chios; Germany alarmed by the claims on the Palatinate urged by Louis XIV in favour of his sister in law the Dutchess of Orleans; in fine, the French ministers irritating all courts by their insolence towards ambassadors;—all this was, in the language of scripture, *sowing winds and reaping whirlwinds*; and all these faults and extravagances were the immediate consequences of one grand error, the war of 1672 against the Dutch.'

This fatal measure, and the still more fatal perseverance in it, are ascribed to the counsels of *Louvois*, whose ascendency over his master's mind is here ably traced, and clearly established.

After all, what a pitiful inconsiderable disturber of European quiet was this Louis XIV. about whom our great grandfathers and grandfathers talked so much! Were he to live in these days, we repeat it, what a moderate, pacific, and reasonable Prince we should denominate him!

In summing up his considerations, this judicious writer observes that,

'Nature had bestowed on Louis more of solid judgment than of superior acuteness; his character was that of constancy and firmness, rather than of daring and ardour; and he was therefore more qualified for the calm duties of peace, than for the enterprizes of war. Suppose that Louis had devoted himself to the beneficent labours of internal economy, that he had given the time and the attention to legislation and administration which he devoted to plans of conquest, that he had employed on finance the labour which he bestowed on military details, and that he had allowed to *Colbert* the ascendency

ascendency which *Louvois* obtained, how many salutary laws would have been enacted!: what establishments, what reforms, what improvements of various kinds! what increase of prosperity in all forms! All the faults that were committed would have been avoided; while on the side of ambition nothing would have been lost, but France would have been more aggrandized.'

If we regard the grand establishments, the important social institutions, and the economical measures which distinguish this period, we shall find that Louis XIV. merely lent them his name; and that he is connected with them only as having appointed and given his confidence to the posters by whom they were founded. *M. Grouvelle* denies that he governed the state, and maintains that in this respect he practised an illusion on himself, and 'only fancied that he ruled, while he was in fact the instrument of the will of others:' but it is admitted that he governed his court. The writer will not allow that this monarch can be considered separately in a private and in a public character, since the former in no degree belonged to him. In his words and his writings, the presence and the weight of the diadem are even seen and felt. Nothing familiar and friendly can be discovered in any letter that he penned, not even in his *billets* to his mistresses. The king always appears, and he is always the master. If he thought it politic to encourage the flattery addressed to him, he was also its dupe. The gigantic haughtiness, which he assumed, he considered as natural grandeur; and he never descended from it, nor allowed it to be disregarded. It was permitted to speak of him only in a certain manner, to which he conformed when speaking of himself.

M. Grouvelle is a severe, but we do not think that he is an unjust judge of the French monarch. If he has a bias, it is favourable to truth, since it leads him to strip the figure of the flimsy drapery which flattery and vanity have thrown over the hideous parts of this monarch's administration; if occasionally he aggravates his misdeeds, and denies to him a share of the merit which belongs to him, such false impressions cannot be lasting, because all the acts of this prince were attended with more than ordinary publicity: while the interests of truth and humanity loudly call for an exposure of those illusions which so many have attempted to impose on the public. In these pages, Louis is indeed a very reduced and on the whole an unpleasing figure. Though we somewhat doubt whether it is drawn with perfect accuracy, we have long been and still are of opinion with this writer, that Louis XIV. and his reign are but imperfectly understood, and that the history of them remains to be composed. *M. Grouvelle* announces

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an intention of undertaking the task; and reflecting on the judgment, temper, and views with which the considerations before us have been written, we much wish that nothing may occur to make him relinquish an attempt for which he has shewn that he possesses a number of the requisite qualifications.

A list of the men of science and letters, both French and foreigners, whom Louis pensioned, together with the sums assigned to each, forms an addition to the first volume of this collection which the curious will prize. It is taken from the MSS. of *Colbert*; and the measure was adopted in 1663. In this account, the great *Corneille* is styled the first dramatic poet in the world, and the sum of two thousand livres stands opposite to his name: some other literati have as much as four thousand, while the exquisite *Racine* has only eight hundred.

When *M. de Gain-Montagnac* and the present editors tread over the same ground, the latter, by having recourse to different MSS. have brought to light many articles which are not to be found in the volume of the former; and that they are not all of inferior moment will appear from the two succeeding short extracts, which are not unimportant whether we consider the fame of the monarch or the gratification of the reader, while they form strong presumptions in favour of that sound sense which none of his detractors deny to have belonged to Louis XIV.

In giving his reasons for employing himself in composing these historical memoirs, the monarch uses these expressions:

'I think that I can render you and my subjects as much service in this line as any person, be he whom he may: for though others may excel me in ability and experience, they will not have reigned, nor have reigned in France; and I am not afraid to declare to you, that the more elevated any situation is, the more objects are there which can only be seen and known by occupying it.'

Admirable reflections occur in the part in which the Royal Parent enjoins it on his son not to decline the toils of government. In the course of them, he observes;

'Much of this labour is highly agreeable; for what is it, but to have your eyes open on the rest of the world: to learn incessantly the news of all the provinces and of all nations; the secrets of all courts; the turn of mind and weak side of princes and their ministers; to learn a great many things of which we are supposed to be ignorant; to discover in those who are about us, that which they attempt most carefully to conceal from us; to penetrate the views of our own courtiers, and to discern their interests and the objects of their aim? I scarcely know any pleasure which we should not sa-

crifice, in order to become acquainted with these matters, were curiosity alone concerned.'

The political memoirs composed by Louis XIV. occupy two volumes in this edition, and the military papers fill two more. They have been edited in a very superior style by General *Grimoard*; whose observations, summaries, notes, and corrections, exceedingly enhance the value of the collection. In a letter prefixed to this division of the royal productions, he remarks 'that these memoirs contain correct statements of facts, and accurate details, which are no where else to be found;' and he observes that this part of the monarch's works are all written with his own hand, and never underwent the correction of *Pelisson*.

In the same letter, the General very concisely states the advantageous circumstances under which Louis began to govern. His army was the most numerous, the best constituted, and the best managed and disciplined of any in Europe; at its head were *Condé* and *Turenne*; next to them stood the Marshals *de Grammont*, *de Prâslin*, and *d'Aumont*; *Crequi*, *Schomberg*, and *Luxembourg* had given promise of what they one day would become; while a score of Lieutenant Generals and other officers, among whom were *Catinat*, *Vendôme*, and *Villars*, had distinguished themselves in their respective stations. In the civil administration of his kingdom, he had the assistance of *Lyonne*, *le Tellier*, *Colbert*, and *Louvois*. To account for the figure which he made, we must consider the extent, the population, and the riches of his kingdom; the industry of its inhabitants; the multitude of great men of all kinds whom it contained; and the produce of the administration and establishments of the immortal *Richelieu*, who contributed more than has been generally believed to the grandeur of the age to which the name of Louis XIV. has been given. How much this monarch was indebted, in the beginning of his reign, to the selections of men of merit by *Mazarin*, is rendered evident by the many instances of unhappy choice made by himself in the war of 1701.

It is observed by the General that nothing so much depreciates Louis XIV. as his affecting in his military memoirs to speak of *Condé* and *Turenne* as his Lieutenants, who only carried into effect his plans; and his treating *Crequi*, *Schomberg*, *Luxembourg* and *Vauban*, at a later period, in the same manner. It is very satisfactorily shewn that Louis never was master of the military art, nor had any genius of that kind. His knowlege of it did not reach beyond the mere elements, while he always remained a stranger to its grand combinations.

tions. In coincidence with the statements of M. *Grouvelle*, (see page 478. of this article,) the pretensions of the vain Prince are here subjected to a rigid examination, and reduced to their true size.

A happy specimen of the royal author's comprehensiveness of statement occurs in the preamble to his memoirs of the campaign of 1672.

'Having taken all necessary precautions in respect to alliances, levies of troops, magazines, ships, and financial resources, I entered into treaties with England, the Elector of Cologne, and the Bishop of Munster, for the purpose of attacking the Dutch; I engaged Sweden to hold Germany in check, and I stipulated with the Dukes of Hanover and Neubourg, and the Emperor, that they should take no part in the approaching contest. Although I have been obliged to expend immense sums in this war, as well previously as in the course of it, I have been very fortunate in having made due preparations for it; nothing of this kind has been found wanting in the course of my enterprizes; and I may boast that I demonstrated, in carrying it on, all that France was capable of effecting alone. Millions have been expended on my allies, I have exhausted abundant treasures, and I am still in a condition to make my enemies fear me, to excite astonishment in my neighbours, and despair in those who are envious of my fortunes. My subjects seconded me with all their power, as well in the armies by their valour as in the interior by their zeal, and as in foreign countries by their industry and capacity: to sum up all, the French nation has shewn how much she appears to advantage when compared with others.'

The two latter volumes which complete this edition consist of letters, miscellaneous pieces, and papers which elucidate the memoirs and the history of the monarch's reign. The letters are arranged in chronological order; and the editor says that, in the selection of them, he gave a preference to those which were interesting in point of matter, or which contained traits characteristic of the royal writer: while he judged it expedient to insert some that might be deemed insignificant, rather than to reject any which might be regarded as important. The series is complete from 1661 to 1678, but in the remaining part there are several gaps. Most of these letters having appeared in different collections, we abstain from making extracts from them.

Louis XIV. had too royal a mind to set up pretensions as a *bel esprit*; and here he had the advantage over the great *Richelieu*. The trick which he played on the Maréchal *de Grammont*, and which Madame *de Sevigné* characterizes as the most cruel that ever happened to an old courtier, few of our readers can have forgotten. The monarch one day shewed the Marshal a copy of verses, passing them off as the production of

another person; when the veteran having been very free in his observations on them, the king informed him that they were his own.

The accessary papers have various degrees of relative importance, with little of intrinsic value.

Too much praise cannot be bestowed on the editors for the pains which they have taken in completing and correcting these royal productions, and in rendering them in every respect inviting, and worthy of the splendid name which they bear. The fac similies of letters written by Louis, and above twenty of the most celebrated men of his time, will much increase the gratification of every reader.—In fine, these papers, elucidated as they are here, throw a vast body of light on the transactions of this brilliant period, and will afford very material aid to the future historians of the far-famed monarch from whose pen they proceeded; while they give a deeper insight into his personal character than any other monuments of the period which it has happened to us to peruse.

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Art. V. *Essais sur l'Enseignement*, &c. *i. e.* Essays on Instruction in general, and particularly with respect to the Mathematics. By S. F. La Croix. 8vo. Paris. 1805. London, De Boffe. 7s. sewed.

It is scarcely necessary to observe, so generally have the facts been mentioned, that classical Literature in France is now in its wane, that the French possess at present few scholars, and that they have no proper nurseries for future worshippers at Olympus. The attention and ambition of their youth are directed towards Natural History, Chemistry, the Mathematical Sciences, and the Military Art. Of their present plan of education, and of its merit compared with the antient system, it is the intention of M. La Croix to speak; and it is our duty to hear him: but we do not, on this subject, expect from him the most rigorous impartiality, since we recollect, within a few years, to have exercised our critical functions on three ponderous quartos and two octavos, all on the abstruse sciences, the produce of his pen.

The author takes a rapid survey of the change effected in philosophy by *Descartes*, Bacon, and Newton. Towards the middle of the eighteenth century, he says, an opinion became prevalent, that the antient system of education at the Colleges was not the fittest for mental and moral improvement; that it contained in its construction too much of the old

old scholastic philosophy, and much unmeaning and uninstructive discipline; that too large a portion of time was devoted to the dead languages; and that scarcely any was set apart for the language of the country, or for the cultivation of natural philosophy and the mathematics. It must now be a matter of uninteresting doubt whether opinion could have sapped the foundations of the old edifice, for the revolution came, and in an instant battered it down. Much that was good and much that was bad, diamonds and rubbish, were buried under the same ruin. 'The general conflagration,' says M. La Croix (with a small confusion in his imagery,) 'consumed an edifice which ought rather to have been repaired than thrown down: but, after this misfortune, shall the edifice be constructed in its pristine fashion and on its old plan? and from respect to its antiquity, from an horror of the scourge that afflicted it, shall we interdict changes proved to be necessary, even whilst it existed.' Instead of the restoration of the old system, a perfectly new one was proposed, which has been long known to our readers. It may not, however, be equally familiar to them that, of three parts of the proposed system of national instruction, one only, that of the central schools, has been properly established: of this M. La Croix speaks, and he defends its plan and mode of instruction. In its constitution, among twenty other professors, we observe a professor of antient languages: but we shall not be much surprised if, in some future alteration and arrangement, that office should be abolished: for the author argues, that in order to write well, we need not know Latin; which is indeed true, even if M. La Croix had not quoted authorities in favour of his assertion. Again, we are told that, in the translations of classical authors which now abound, we may meet with historical facts, metaphysical disquisitions, and moral precepts. That this is partly true must also be conceded: but the argument has been urged before, and has been ably and acutely opposed. It is not now our purpose to enter into the question: but our readers must perceive that the tendency of the French anti-classical opinion and system is to leave France without a single good scholar.

Much is here said, and said with considerable dullness, concerning the human mind, and the means of aiding its progress, the duties of professors, and those of scholars, &c. The author was commanded to write this work, and we have been obliged to peruse it: what effect it may produce on French readers we know not: but to us it has proved most wonderfully uninteresting and uninstructive.

In his peculiar department, however, M. La Croix has succeeded: his plan for a course of mathematical instruction is good, and his general observations on the science are just and proper: but they are intelligible only to those readers whose previous knowlege and memory supply them with materials from which the observations were drawn, or with examples to which they may be applied.

The schools of modern France are *military* schools: we desire not to see ours transformed into such seminaries: yet the times and conjunctures seem to require some departure from antient customs and discipline. The grand aim of the French ruler is to render that tremendous machine, an army, as perfect as possible. Whatever be the physical force or the mental daring and fortitude of the individuals who compose it, the whole, from its construction and principle of activity, must necessarily be powerful and energetic. Every soldier *may* be a General, and therefore many strive to attain that elevation: the prospect of advancement excites and cherishes the spirit of enterprise; and, consequently, by the emulous hosts of *Bonaparte*, the antiquely-modelled armies of Europe have been confounded. If the sovereigns who remain would avoid or resist the "sweepy sway" of the French tempest, they must modify their present systems, and in some degree imitate that of their adversary: so imminent are the dangers, that for a while "the dull claims of age and rank" must be forgotten and neglected; and when the existence of a nation is endangered, every thing, except its honor, must be given up and sacrificed to its preservation.

R.W.

Art. VI. *Tableaux des Vents, des Marées, et des Courans*, &c. *i. e.* Tables of the Winds, Tides, and Currents, that have been observed in all the Seas of the Globe; with Reflections on these Phænomena. By Ch. Romme, Associate of the National Institute, and Member of the Legion of Honour, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Conchy. Price 1l. 1s.

The philosophic reader will at once perceive that the subject of this treatise is of very great importance; and we are happy to find that, in France as well as in England, the attention of scientific men seems to be directing itself towards that branch of the system and science of navigation which seems most imperfect. The astronomical part of navigation, on which the place of the vessel depends, has been carried to a considerable degree of perfection; and our philosophical mariners, or our mariners philosophically directed, ought now exactly to register

gister currents and winds, their strength and direction, and all concomitant circumstances.

In this science, yet in its infancy, the rules of the great Bacon should be rigorously observed: every phænomenon must be exactly and fully recorded; and it is evident that, without copious experiments, we cannot hope to lay the foundations of an explanatory system. If the globe were one vast ocean, we might, from philosophical principles, fairly presume that such and such events would result: a current of air would follow the course of the sun: but this general effect and circumstance will be modified a hundred ways, when we suppose islands and continents placed in the ocean, of various magnitudes and forms, in divers positions, some flat in their surfaces, others interrupted and mountainous. The winds cannot then appear as they would if the surface of the globe were uniform; and if in any parts they preserve the force and direction which it should seem they ought to have, this can only happen in seas of vast extent.

We must consider it as almost hopeless to attempt to account for all the varieties of wind that prevail on the continent. Philosophical curiosity ought not to be dissatisfied, if certain causes are exposed and developed, that are perfectly competent to account for winds in their general effects; and practical utility, in the demands of navigation, requires that those winds should be first explained which prevail on known seas and on their shores: we mean, so explained that their laws shall be registered and recorded, and that the mariner should be able to avail himself of such record.

A survey of the globe points out to M. Romme the plan and distribution of his work:

'If (says he) we study the chart of the different parts of the surface of the globe, and if we examine the disposition of the seas, and of the great masses of land which separate them, we may easily distinguish the principal divisions that indicate those of a register of observations on the winds.

'In the northern hemisphere, the terraqueous parts embrace an immense extent, while the southern hemisphere is covered with a vast ocean only slightly intersected by isles, and by the smallest extremities of the great continents of Africa and America. A southern ocean appears to envelope all the polar region, and it may be considered as stretching its branches between the different continents; one branch from the south to the north, between the western coasts of Africa, of Europe, and the eastern coasts of America; the second, directed in the same manner between Asia and America, and which appears to have a tendency to re-unite itself with the first in the northern polar region; and finally a third, which, bounding its course at the Tropic of Cancer, embraces

the shores of the islands, peninsulas, and vast gulphs of the East Indies.

'Thus, on the surface of the globe, the vast seas known and frequented by navigators present themselves in three principal divisions, designated under the names of the Atlantic Ocean, the Great or Pacific Ocean, and the Sea of the East Indies.

'But each of these oceans extends its surface under different climates. Each occupies a space, more or less great, under the different parallels of the globe; and the observations that have been made on the winds in the parts which each embraces under the frigid, temperate, and torrid zones, are distinguished by differences too great not to render it eligible to class them separately. It is for this reason that the table, in the new subdivisions, will present winds observed in the unequal portions of zones that belong to one and the other hemisphere.'

In the present treatise and collection, M. ROMME inserts the observations as they were published, which have principally been made by professed mariners; and general results are given, from a consideration of various and of repeated evidence. For the law of effects most notorious, and most clearly ascertained, authorities are not quoted: but, on the contrary, the names of observers are subjoined, when the details relate to facts that are singular, isolated, and not verified by frequent experience.

The first three chapters of the work record the winds which prevail in the Atlantic Ocean, in the Pacific Ocean, and in the Sea; each chapter being subdivided into minor sections. Chapter IV. relates to winds observed in seas of small extent.

In the second table, is given an account of *currents* in the seas above specified. To these historical and matter-of-fact statements, succeed, towards the conclusion of the volume, general reflections on the great movements of the atmosphere, movements which arise from the attraction of the sun, and from its heat. The motions derived from the first cause are similar to the perturbations in physical astronomy, viz. to those in the moon's orbit; and M. ROMME has investigated them by nearly the same method as that which Newton employed in his eleventh section. Thus, he first finds the force with which an aerean molecule is attracted towards the sun: he then resolves this force into two, one tending towards the centre of the earth, and the other parallel to a line drawn from the centre to the sun: a second resolution is made, and one resolved force tends to or from the centre, and the other is tangential. The former force in the production of winds it is not necessary to consider, since its chief office is to alter the form of the atmosphere, and to give a spheroidal shape. The tangential force is that on which, the earth being in motion, the winds depend, and is easily computed: it varies as sin. θ. cos. θ, or as sin. 2 θ, θ being

being the distance of the sun from the zenith of the place, M. ROMME again resolves it into two forces, one perpendicular to the parallel in which the molecule is situated, the other in the direction of the parallel; and in the terms of the hour-angle, the azimuth, &c. he finds, by a simple process, expressions for these forces. From those expressions, it is easily shewn that, if the earth revolve round its axis, currents of air or winds must take place: from the east to the west, and towards the equator, the least winds must modify the effects of the former, which are supposed to arise from the forces acting in the directions of parallels to the equator.

The second cause of wind is the unequal quantity of heat which falls on different parts of the earth, and of the atmospheric shell that surrounds it. With the aid of a diagram, this difference of heat may be estimated, and the process is not long. Besides the displacement of the rarefied air by that which is colder and denser, M. ROMME considers the chemical effect which must follow from its increased heat, and which consists in the air, from such increase of heat, being endowed with a greater affinity for water. The stratum nearest to the sea is most heated, and then saturated; the next superior stratum takes from it water, and holds it in solution, and so on throughout the atmosphere; each stratum or shell holding water in solution proportional to its heat and its density, and the whole volume of the air being, by this saturation, augmented.

'It results then (says the author) from these observations that, if a certain mass of air, which is saturated with water, experiences refrigeration, it cannot in its new state preserve in solution the quantity that belongs to it in its highest temperature. It finds itself supersaturated with water, and immediately this excess of water, which was under an elastic form, resumes its natural state; and it is known, according to *Monge*, that, in passing from the aeriform to the liquid state, the water is reduced to a volume almost nine hundred times less: which occasions in the atmosphere a sudden vacuum. The refrigeration of a saturated air produces, then, both the precipitation of the water which can no longer be held in solution, and a vacuum which, formerly occupied by the water in its aeriform state, is again filled with rapidity. These effects are the greater, the more considerable is the change in the temperature, and in the mass of air affected. Besides, it is necessary to remark that, in this precipitation, the caloric augments in the mass of the air as it diminishes by the dissolution of the water. The diminution of the density of a shell produces similar effects; and it may happen from a decrease of the pressure of the superior shells. This diminution takes place always, for example, when the upper air moves with greater velocity, or when it suffers the water to be precipitated, which it can no longer hold in solution; and when the precipitations

of

of the water are sudden and very extensive, instantly a great vacuum is formed in the atmosphere.'

Towards the end of the second volume, the author enters on the subject of tides; and his general reflections and theoretical considerations are here made to precede his table and register of observations. In explaining the cause, the general effects, and the particular modifications of the tides of the ocean, he uses no very complicated calculations: but his deductions and inferences are very satisfactory and clear, and are stated with true philosophic caution. In the mathematical part, he adopts the formula before demonstrated for the attraction of a luminary on aerial particles; and of the disturbing forces, he employs that which acts in the direction of the tangent, and which varies as the sine of twice the angular distance from quadratures. He shews, with considerable evidence, that the high tides are owing to the interposition of islands and continents, and to the impediment which they offer to the waters elevated towards the sun; and he attributes the flow and ebb, observable near coasts, to the elevation of the water above their level, and to the form of the shore: the water, unsupported, falling down with velocity on the lower parts of the shore, or rushing into the beds of rivers. At sea, away from coasts, no flow or ebb is perceptible.

The tables of the tides, which occupy nearly the whole of the second volume, are divided on each page into vertical columns: the first contains the name of the places: the second, the hour of high tide at syzygies: the third, the height: and the fourth column is set apart for remarks. It cannot be supposed that we ought to decide on the exactness of the facts, that is on the heights and hours of the tide, &c. stated in these tables: but we see no reason for distrusting them, especially as the author has no favourite system to establish. He writes with ease and perspicuity, and without dogmatism; and his book, in our judgment, is intitled to the notice of navigators, and of the lovers of speculative research.

R.W.

ART. VII. *Obras*, &c. *i. e.* The Works of FRANCIS DE BORJA STOCKLER, Secretary of the Royal Academy of Science, &c. Vol. I. small 8vo. Lisbon. 1805.

THE ingenious author of this volume published, some years since, several papers in the Lisbon Transactions; one of which treated on the principles of the differential calculus. In consequence of some animadversions which we made on that memoir, a slight discussion and controversy arose between M. STOCKLER and us; and the learned Portuguese wrote a small

small Pamphlet in support of his opinions and assertions, under the title of *Lettre au Rédacteur du Monthly Review*, which we examined in our 32d vol. p. 495. Difference of opinion, however, has created no animosity; and we are happy to be brought together again, and not on the terms of decided contention.

Of the present volume, the contents are six Eulogies; a discourse delivered in the name of the Royal Society, and addressed to the president; a Memoir on the originality of the maritime discoveries of the Portuguese in the 15th century; and a mathematical letter to M. *Felkel.*

Among the Eulogies, the most important for its subject, but on account of the *notoriety* of that subject the least requisite, is that on *M. D'Alembert.* The life of this great mathematician is sketched only with conciseness: but, in the narration of the transactions of his younger days, our attention is for a moment arrested by the observation that *D'Alembert* began his career as Newton ended, with a religious tract, a Commentary on St. Paul's Epistles. The account of *D'Alembert*'s mathematical progress, and of the several works successively published by him, is judiciously and ably given. We wish, however, that the writer had more particularly insisted on one of the first of this philosopher's productions, his Dynamics: the merit of that performance being very high. Authors speak of it with sufficient elevation of praise: but they do not, with proper precision and fullness, state its peculiar excellence; nor explain to the satisfaction of students their frequent assertion, that *D'Alembert* in that work reduced all problems in Dynamics to a dependance on the equations of equilibrium. The principle of this reduction is not, however, entirely due to *D'Alembert.* As M. *La Grange* observes in his *Mecanique Analytique*, and as M. STOCKLER remarks in the paper before us, the principle is really laid down and used by *James Bernoulli*, in his problem of the centre of oscillation; *Acta Erud. Lips.* 1691.

Guiding his narration by the historical arrangement of *D'Alembert*'s writings, the author passes on to notice, first, his treatise on the equilibrium and motion of fluids; in which the principle, that was the foundation of his solutions in Dynamics, was again employed, and by means of which he obtained fluxional equations. Next occurs his treatise on the general cause of the winds, in which were sown the first germs of the theory of partial differences. This narration of M. STOCKLER is interspersed and enlivened by many just and pertinent observations.

The

The application of his methods and of his analysis to physical astronomy, and to the theory of the moon,—the remarkable and unexpected result obtained at the same time by *D'Alembert*, *Euler*, and *Clairaut*, relative to the motion of the lunar apogee,—what astronomer is ignorant of these circumstances? yet the continuity of historical narration requires the notice of them, and the present eulogist has inserted them; at the same time properly commending the superior prudence and caution of *D'Alembert*, who, unlike *Clairaut*, was unwilling to give up the received law of gravitation, and rather distrusted the exactness of his own computations.

Of the mathematician's labours in the Encyclopedie, M. Stockler speaks in favorable terms, and especially of his celebrated preface. It is mentioned that the project of the Encyclopedie did not originate with *Diderot*, as it is generally believed, but with M. *Gua*.

The problem of vibrating chords, first solved by Taylor, caused a long controversy between *D'Alembert* and *Euler*: the latter of whom asserted that the arbitrary functions, contained in the integral of the differential equation which expressed the conditions of the problem, might be *discontinued*. The several arguments employed by these philosophers, in support of their respective opinions, are exposed and criticised by M. Stockler.

The integral is expressed by means of symbols f, F, &c. which denote functions of variable quantities; and the fluxionary equation is this:

$$a^2 \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{x}^2} = P \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{t}^2}$$

since y is a function of x and t

$\dot{y} = p\dot{x} + q\dot{t}$ in which $p = \frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{x}}$ $q = \frac{\dot{y}}{\dot{t}}$

again; $\dot{p} = P\dot{x} + Q\dot{t}$

$\dot{q} = r\dot{x} + s\dot{t}$

in which $r = \frac{\dot{q}}{\dot{x}} = \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{x}\dot{t}} = \frac{\dot{p}}{\dot{t}} = Q$

and $s = \frac{\dot{q}}{\dot{t}} = \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{t}^2} = a^2 \frac{\ddot{y}}{\dot{x}^2} = o\frac{\dot{p}}{x} = a^2 P$

hence $\dot{p} = P\dot{x} + Q\dot{t}$

$\dot{q} = Q\dot{x} + a^2 P\dot{t}$

and hence $a\dot{p} + \dot{q} = (aP + Q)(\dot{x} + a\dot{t})$

$a\dot{p} - \dot{q} = (aP - Q)(\dot{x} - a\dot{t})$

From these fluxionary equations, we easily deduce

$$ap+q = f(x+at)$$
$$ap-q = F(x-at)$$

and then, adding and subtracting, and substituting for p and q their values, viz.

$\frac{y^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}}$ and $\frac{y^{\cdot}}{t^{\cdot}}$, we obtain

$$y = \left\{ f(x+at) + F(x-at \right\}$$

which is the complete integral, and involves two arbitrary functions.

From this equation, applied to the vibrating string, it may be shewn that the functions f and F are the same; and thence

$$y = \tfrac{1}{2}\left(f(x+at) + f(x-at)\right)$$

Most mathematicians have coincided with *Euler*; among whom is *Arbogast*, who has resumed the question in the Petersburgh Acts for 1790. He transforms the equation, on which the question depends, into

$$\frac{x''}{2i \cdot v^{\cdot}} = o$$

of which the integral equation is

$$z = \varphi x + \varphi y$$

On this method and determination, M. STOCKLER makes some remarks. He does not entirely agree with *Arbogast*, but acknowleges that he is acquainted with the memoir of that mathematician only through the medium of *La Croix*'s Integral Calculus.

The next essay in this volume is an Eulogy on *Barros*, a considerable mathematician and astronomer of Portugal: yet we must confess that, previously to the perusal of M. STOCKLER's discourse, we were ignorant of his labours and his merits. M. *Barros* has left a number of manuscripts, and his printed works are also many. He published new equations for the perfection of the theory of Jupiter's satellites; explained the remarkable phænomenon in the passage of Mercury over the Sun's disk, &c. and wrote on the difference of the population of Portugal in antient and modern times, &c.

We now arrive at an Eulogy on *Robert Nunes da Costa*, who early in life was placed in a professor's chair; and who, according to the present writer, possessed considerable knowlege in language and metaphysics, enlightened by a large portion of philosophic spirit. In the latter part of his life, which was shortened by too great fatigue in the discharge of his duties, he was employed in the formation of a dictionary.

The

The three next Eulogies are those of M. *Mello de Castro*, M. *Sanches d'Orta*, and M. *de Valleré :* the first a statesman, the second an astronomer, and the third a General.—The English reader is not particularly interested in their contents.

The letter to M. *Felkel* is written in French, and is purposed to be explanatory of his method of finding the factors of numbers not divisible by 2, 3, 5; and to give the base of his method by the simple principles of arithmetic. The work or memoir of M. *Felkel* we have not seen, and therefore the comment is not, in all places, very intelligible to us. We wish that M. STOCKLER had indulged in greater fullness of explanation. This letter forms the conclusion of the present volume, and the second has not yet reached us.

R.W.

ART. VIII. *Histoire Particuliere des Evénemens*, &c. *i. e.* A Particular History of the Events in France during the Months of June, July, August, and September 1792, and which occasioned the Fall of the Throne; in which will be found new Details, supported by Proofs, respecting these deplorable Epochs; two Secret and unpublished Letters of Louis XVI; the Orders and Ordinances of the public Authorities, and of the Sections with regard to the Murders of September; the Sums paid to the vile Instruments of these bloody Executions; an Alphabetical List of *all* the Victims massacred at Paris, Lyons, Orleans, Versailles, and Meaux; Sketches and Particulars of the Lives, Works, and, last Moments of the Principal also of the guilty Perpetrators, who have been convicted and executed or banished, and of other Persons Antient and Modern, famous and celebrated, &c. &c. By M. MATON-DE-LA-VARENNE, Advocate, Member of many Academies and learned Societies, and one of the Proscribed who escaped the St. Bartholomew of 1792. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s.

AFTER having copied the wordy title page of this volume, we need not particularize its contents. It unquestionably has the merit of stating facts which had not been previously published: but whether the relations are authentic, or not, is a question which we own we have no means of deciding. We can only say that the writer, when furnishing details which had been before supplied by others, seems not always worthy of dependance; and that he incurs the charge which we have already had occasion more than once to prefer, however extraordinary it may seem, that of imputing crimes to the monsters of the sanguinary æra of the French Revolution, of which they were not guilty. We have heard it observed in the way

of pleasantry, that some minds have an innate love of *lying*; and nothing can more strongly corroborate this opinion, than the circumstance of falsehoods having been circulated with regard to *Robespierre* and his colleagues. It is most evident that it was the intention of these false accusers, to render hideous and detestable the wretches whose conduct they undertook to describe; and it is not less clear that nothing could so effectually have led to that end, as a true and exact statement of the particulars of their conduct. How are we then to account for this preference given to falsehoods when truth would have better answered the object designed? How are we to account for the glaring falsehoods of the Revolutionary Plutarchs, the Histories of Jacobinism, Conspiracies, and that class of writings which served to shew the credulity and ignorance of so many of our worthy countrymen? We would not be understood as ranking the present writer with those to whom we have been alluding; since it is our own opinion that, in the new relations for which we are beholden to him, he mixes some false with much of true statement, as we perceive he has done in those parts of his detail which admit of a comparison with the testimonies of a host of other writers. The novel part of the volume is so atrocious, that we do not think that any selections from it would gratify our readers. Those who would learn to what excesses a multitude which has broken loose from the ties of civil authority, religion, and law, may be carried, will find what they seek in the present work; which, though it be disgusting, is not uninstructive. Jo.

ART. IX. *Saggio Idrografico del Piemonte*, i. e. An Essay on the Hydrography of Piedmont, by G. T. MICHELOTTI, late Mathematical Professor in the University of Turin, dedicated to his Royal Highness the Prince of Brazil, Regent of Portugal, &c. 4to. pp. 126. Rome, 1803.

Ensayo Hydrographico, &c. The same work translated into Portuguese, by Father *Francesco Furtado de Mendonça*. 4to. Rome.

THE vast chains of mountains which extend themselves over the greater part of the late principality of Piedmont, and the neighbouring districts of Dauphiné, Savoy, Le Valais, and Swisserland, give rise to numerous rivers and torrents, which, in their course to the Po, exhibit almost every variety of character that can interest the hydraulic engineer. The fall and consequent rapidity of these streams are in general very considerable, and offer to agriculture and manufactures the most important advantages, at little trouble or expence. On the other hand, the tremendous floods, to which they are all more

more or less subject, render strong precautions, and the most unremitting vigilance, essentially necessary to the preservation of the property and the lives of the inhabitants. None of these objects have been overlooked by the ingenious Piedmontese; no small proportion of whom are indebted for their support to the increased means of subsistence, arising from inland navigation, manufactures, and the universal practice of irrigation. It is scarcely to be supposed, however, that the uncombined and unassisted efforts of individuals, or of small communities, should draw from these sources all the benefits which they are capable of affording. Petty jealousies, clashing interests, and insufficiency of capital, would frequently prove obstacles to the execution of plans of acknowleged utility; while some works would be improperly undertaken, and more still would be injudiciously neglected, without the assistance of ablé engineers, who combine a perfect knowlege of the principles of their profession with the most correct local information.

Emanuel the third, with the view of remedying some of these inconveniencies, instituted in the year 1760, in the vicinity of Turin, an hydraulic school; which, with due allowance for the disadvantages usually attending the infancy of an establishment of this nature, promised to be productive of considerable benefit to the community. Many extensive works, projected by MICHELOTTI and divers engineers, were actually carried into execution; and others not less important were suspended or interrupted by the events of the late disastrous war. The valuable mass of information on all these points, which the professional pursuits of the author of the work before us, and of his father and brother, had enabled them to collect, first suggested the idea of a full and correct description of the course and phænomena of the rivers of Piedmont, and of the various uses to which their waters are and might be applied. A plan embracing such a wide field, and at the same time requiring such accuracy in the details, appeared, however, an object so important, and its completion by an individual seemed an undertaking so arduous, that the author resolved previously to try the sense of the public, by the present volume; which, under the modest title of an Essay, discloses the outline of the important work to which it is designed as a prelude. We sincerely trust that he will not be deterred from his first purpose. The publication now on our table induces us to form the most favourable opinion of his talents and information; and the originality of the plan will suggest a strong claim to indulgence, for any deficiences and irregularities in the execution of it.

The work commences with pointing out the sources of the rivers of Piedmont, under the different chains of mountains which

which almost encircle the valley of the Po. After a few interesting observations on the principal phænomena which these mountains present, the author proceeds to examine the nature and origin of the various substances which are carried down by the rivers. Here, in particular, he appears to be fully master of his subject; and though his reasonings pre-suppose no inconsiderable acquaintance with chemistry and geology, he carefully abstains from introducing any matter not immediately necessary to his purpose: on all occasions chusing rather to refer his readers to such authorities as they would most probably have an opportunity of consulting.

Chapter II describes the character and most usual appearances of the Piedmontese rivers. Passing slightly over those features which are common to rivers in general, M. MICHELOTTI chiefly directs the attention of philosophers to the great floods to which we have before alluded. To give some idea of their violence, it is stated that at Turin the Po often flows at the prodigious rate of fifteen or eighteen English miles per hour; and, as some of the larger rivers, which it receives above Turin, remain navigable at all periods, it follows that this impetus must have been almost wholly communicated by a few smaller streams, the rapidity of which must in course greatly exceed the ascertained velocity of the Po. Accordingly, it is affirmed by the neighbouring peasants, that, at these periods, stones are dashed against each other with such force as to strike fire in the stream. Many pieces of two or three hundred weight are thrown on the banks; and others, carried by the stream against the side of the channel, shake the ground to a considerable distance. The greatest innundations are observed to take place when the rainy season is accompanied by a south wind, a more active agent in dissolving the snow of the glaciers than the most intense rays of the sun: but probably the operation of both these causes is materially strengthened and concentrated by another circumstance, to which the author does not appear to have paid sufficient attention. The fall in these rivers being very considerable, the body of water which they usually contain must form to itself a narrow current; and consequently an accession of water, in the same proportion as would but slightly accelerate the course of the broad rivers of more level districts, must seek to discharge itself from these narrow channels in torrents and inundations. The chapter concludes with remarks on the gold found in the sands of several rivers, and an enumeration of the trees and shrubs commonly planted for the defence of the banks.

The third chapter contains a short description of the course of the different rivers of Piedmont, and the principal canals

which proceed from them. This enumeration commences with the Toce, a small river which, rising on the confines of the Valais, meets the Po just before it leaves the Piedmontese territory. The author then proceeds to describe all the streams which join the left bank of the Po; and after having stated the course of that river also, from its source to its entry into the Milanese territory, he in the same manner follows its right bank, concluding with the Trebbia: only a part of the course of which is detailed, because it leaves the Sardinian dominions long before it reaches the Po. Much light is, no doubt, thrown on the topography of Piedmont by this part of the work: but M. MICHELOTTI adheres so strictly to his intention of exhibiting a mere outline, that it is little calculated to interest foreigners. The Dora Riparia, probably on account of its vicinity to the metropolis, is described in greater detail. Four plates, neatly engraved by Cipriani, represent its course from Susa to Turin; and a copious index explains the various canals, sluices, bridges, and mills connected with the Dora. From the minuteness of this part of the essay, it seems not unfair to suppose that it was intended as a specimen of the author's projected undertaking.

'In the first chapter, (he says) it was observed that the Dora Riparia rises on the confines of Dauphiné and Piedmont. After having washed the walls of Susa, it leaves the mountains between the hill of Musiné, and that which is crowned by the antient Sanctuary of St. Michael. Among the smaller tributary streams, we remark the Cinischia, or Cinicella, which, descending from Mount Cenis, known to the antients under the name of *Mons Cinerum*, meets the left bank of the Dora, about a quarter of a mile from a suburb of Susa, called St. Giacomo. Also on the left, but nearer to the city, it receives the Merdarello. The former carries down a vast quantity of very small ash-coloured sand, which renders any increase in its waters discernible as far as Turin. The city of Susa is supplied with water from the Dora: but this stream, as well as others, which it throws out above, is too small to arrest our attention. The first after these is the canal of Forest, (A. plate IV.) which is the most considerable of any that issue from the left bank of the river. Nos. 127, 128, 129, denote three smaller openings. The first of these four streams turns several mills, of various descriptions; after which it is applied, like the rest, to the purpose of irrigation. B marks the entrance of the second canal, or Roggia di Bossoleno; and on the left at C are two others of equal size, and at a little distance from each other. The fourth opening at D, also on the left, gives rise to the canal of Chianocco. The fifth canal, at E, passes through the hills, which overhang the right bank of the Dora, in the territory of St. Giorio. The sixth opening in the territory of St. Antonio is also on the right. This canal differs from those already mentioned, in having at its entrance a dyke or wear across the river, to conduct the water.

water. It is a stream of considerable importance, turning several mills, and irrigating the extensive districts of Vajes and La Chiusa; and it falls at last into the canal of Rivoli, whereas all the preceding return sooner or later into the river. The canal of Rivoli, proceeding from the point G, also on the right, is considerably larger than the last mentioned, and may be calculated at ten ruote* of water in the summer. It is afterward increased by the accession of a smaller stream. which issues at No. 126, and waters a small tract of land. The eighth canal of importance is taken from the point H, for the benefit of the districts of Casellette and Alpignano, in the plains of which it spreads and loses itself, without again returning to the Dora. Neither this canal nor that of Rivoli is provided with any wear across the river; and it is asserted that most of those which now exist are of very modern construction, there being reason to believe that the bed of the river has sunk in many places. The ninth opening, at No. 124, supplies the canal of Avigliano; and here the instability of the soil makes it necessary to vary at times the position of the wear. This stream, after having worked mills of various descriptions, divides into smaller branches, which water the districts of St. Ambrogio, Avigliano, and Buttigliera, and at last it falls into the tenth, or canal of the mills of Buttigliera, which leaves the river at No. 117.

'The eleventh opening, at No. 112 on the right, supplies the canal of Grugliasco, which, winding many miles through the plains, waters a considerable extent of country, and turns several mills. At No. 109 it passes under rocks; and these subterraneous excavations, which are by no means unusual, are in those districts called Cats, (Gatti,) a term not altogether inappropriate, if we consider the unpleasant and awkward postures which the workmen are obliged to assume, when employed in repairing or cleaning out the canal. The twelfth opening, at No. 107, supplies the mills and other works of Alpignano; after which, with the accession of some smaller streams, it forms the canal Becca, or Becchia, which extends its benefits as far as part of the district of Turin. The thirteenth, on the left of the river, at No. 100, supplies the canal Consorzia; which, after being carried across the Dora by an aqueduct, turns several mills, and then branches into subdivisions, for the purpose of irrigation. The fourteenth, issuing at No. 95, immediately below the bridge of Alpignano, supplies the canal of Pianezza, also to the left of the river. The fifteenth, on the left, (plate I. 92.) supplies the canal of La Veneria Real, which works several mills and irrigates plains of vast extent. The sixteenth, on the right, waters the fields of Rivoli. The seventeenth, opening at No. 79, supplies the canal of Collegno; and the eighteenth, at No. 75, that at Druent. Both these are on the left of the river, and, in their numerous subdivisions, work many mills of various descriptions, and water extensive plains. The nineteenth, at No. 71, merely supplies the mills, &c. of an individual, who has a right to a stream thrown off by a wear. The twentieth, on the left,

* The Ruota, or Piedmontese square foot, equals 476,8289 inches, or about $2\frac{3}{4}$ square feet English.

at No. 68, supplies the canal Putea, part of which crosses the river by an aqueduct attached to the bridge at Collegno, and reaches the plains of Turin. The twenty-first, on the left, at No. 52, supplies the manor of Collegno, and various works belonging to the Lord. The twenty-second, on the right, supplies the canal Cossola, which, as well as those last mentioned, is provided with a wear. The twenty-third, at No. 48, supplies what is called the new canal. The twenty-fourth, at No. 44, supplies the old canal, or canal of Lucent. The twenty fifth, at No. 39, which is the first within the district of Turin, supplies the numerous mills and manufactures of this city, besides several royal works. Its various ramifications may be seen in the plate and index. Lastly, the twenty-sixth, at No. 30, called the new royal canal, supplies a great variety of works, particularly the manufactures in the Real Parco, and irrigates a considerable district.

'We have purposely avoided repeating many particulars inserted in the index attached to the plates, which appears to specify as many objects as the nature of our plan required. It is easy to conceive on how large a scale it would have been necessary to construct the plates, had we engaged in minute details respecting the course of the different canals, and the numerous small streams which the Dora receives in its progress. Still less was it our intention to enter into those details which belong particularly to hydraulic architecture.

'The course of the Dora in the mountains, from its source to the city of Susa, may be computed at 20 or 23 British miles, and from Susa, till it meets the Po, nearly 66. The fish of this river are scarce and in little esteem.'

Chapter IV contains reflections on some of the means of extending the advantages derived from the rivers of Piedmont; principally relating to the navigation of the Po and Tanaro, which appears in all seasons to be difficult, and not unfrequently extremely hazardous. After the floods, the Po, instead of retiring into one channel, forms itself into several small branches; and notwithstanding the appointment of a *Capitano della Navigazione*, a principal part of whose office it is to determine what course the bargemen are to take, it often happens that, through ignorance or carelessness, they are in danger of running aground, from the want of sufficient depth of water, or of dashing their little vessels against the trees and fragments of rocks brought down by the torrent. Unpleasant accidents are also occasioned by the dykes erected in the river, for the purpose of directing the current against the floating mills, which are common on the Po and the Tanaro, where the flatness of the neighbouring country renders mills of a different construction very rare. To obviate these inconveniences, the author generally recommends the formation of a navigable canal, nearly parallel with the course of the river. He still

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more strongly insists on the important advantages which might be obtained by merely widening some of the already existing canals of irrigation, which would, at a comparatively trifling expence, open an extensive internal communication. The Dora, notwithstanding its frequent wears, is navigated by rafts, from Susa to Alpignano; and the numerous streams which it diffuses in the neighbourhood of the latter place, suggested the idea of continuing the communication with Turin and the Po, by means of one of them. By this plan, all the heavy merchandise sent by land from France to Italy might be embarked at Susa, and proceed down the Po without farther interruption. The author was engaged in calculations and surveys preparatory to this important undertaking, 'when the war deprived him of the means of carrying it into execution, and very nearly of the power of reflecting on it.'

The Vth chapter treats of the regulations and customs respecting waters and water courses. By the laws of Piedmont, no individual nor community could, under any pretence, divert the course or alter the bed of a river, without a royal patent; to obtain which, it was requisite that a full and detailed account of the situation and quantity of the water demanded, and of the manner in which it was proposed to be conveyed, accompanied by the necessary explanatory drawings, should be laid before the minister of the interior: who decided on the petition, unless the importance and intricacy of the case required the interference of other tribunals. The royal permission being once obtained, the proprietors of the land, through which the line of the proposed canal passed, were obliged to surrender the necessary quantity of ground, on receiving an eighth beyond its intrinsic value, as a compensation for the inconvenience.

After having enumerated the different methods of distributing the waters of the canal among the parties interested, M. MICHELOTTI notices the provision made for their preservation. Each is usually committed to the inspection of a resident engineer; whose duty it is to improve the property in every possible manner, by extending the uses of the canal, raising the rents, and preventing all improper diversion of the water. His chief business, however, is to repair any damage occasioned by the floods. The canal is also divided into several small districts, each of which is intrusted to a *Pradorolo*, or guard; who, assisted by the necessary artificers, regulates the distribution of the water, superintends the cleaning out of the channel, and is at all times ready to direct such

repairs as may be immediately wanted. The regulations for the security of navigation are not only few, but those few appear to be unimportant.

The notes attached to this Essay considerably augment its value. Those which were furnished by M. MICHELOTTI contain comparative Tables of weights and measures, the elevations of the principal mountains of Piedmont, and a few cursory remarks on some hydrographical writings. For the remainder, the editor is indebted to an intelligent friend, whose name is not mentioned. These afford much interesting information respecting the state of population in the different provinces of Piedmont, and point out its intimate connection with the degree of advantage derived by each from the canals with which they are intersected. Some valuable details are inserted respecting the silk manufacture and the cultivation of rice; and explanations are also given of the projected communication between the Po and the navigable part of the Dora, together with the estimates of the probable expence of the undertaking.

In compositions of this nature, the style is one of the last objects to be taken into consideration. This author's manner of writing, however, possesses that simplicity and perspicuity which might naturally be expected from his thorough acquaintance with the subject on which he treats.

The Portuguese translation, the author of which is apparently also the editor of the original, exhibits a degree of exactness which, without the close analogy subsisting between the two languages, would be wholly unattainable. Ja. Mans jun.

ART. X. *Oeuvres Complètes de* VAUVENARGUES, &c. *i. e.* The Complete Works of VAUVENARGUES. A new Edition, with critical and grammatical Notes. To which is prefixed a short Account of the Life and Writings of the Author, by M. *Suard*, perpetual Secretary of the Class of the French Language and Literature in the Institute, and Member of the Legion of Honor. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris, 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s.

THOSE readers, who are more than superficially acquainted with the literature of France, are not ignorant of the merits of the young Marquis DE VAUVENARGUES. With a mind ever intent on pursuits that were fair and honorable, distinguished by superior energies, and strongly addicted to letters, he was enabled to brave both the disadvantages of a profession little favourable to study, and the inconveniences of incessant ill health and straitened circumstances; and to leave

leave behind him, though cut off at an early age, monuments which reflect honor on his memory, and which intitle it to the respect of mankind. In the premature death of a literary man, the sympathy of generous minds is excited in an uncommon degree; since, with the affecting event of an untimely dissolution, is associated the loss of glory to the individual, and the privation of benefits to society. If we may be allowed to borrow the language of antient times, fate on these occasions appears more than usually envious and malignant.—We shall make a brief abstract of the biography of the present object of such regret.

Luke de Clapiers, Marquis of Vauvenagrues, descended from a noble and antient family in Provence, was born at Aix, August 16, 1715, the epoch of the death of Louis XIV. The accomplished editor offers to us some reflections on the ages which preceded and followed the birth of his author, which we are tempted to insert:

'The brilliant period, which was then drawn to its close, had been distinguished by models in almost all the branches of literature, which have not since been equalled; it had also generally diffused principles of taste and emulation, the effects of which extended to other times. It most frequently happens that men of genius, who open a new career, and who enter it without a guide, leave far behind them those who tread in their steps. Distinction of this sort belonged to *Corneille, Moliere. Racine, La Fontaine, Bossuet*, and *La Bruyère:* but the age which produced *Fontenelle, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Buffon*, and *Rousseau*,—the age which perfected and fixed the French language, and which has reflected light on all the objects of human knowledge,—has no cause for envying the splendid æra of literature which preceded it, but is worthy to share in its celebrity, and claims the advantage over it of more clearly discerning and more justly appreciating the great characters to whom it was unable to furnish rivals. *Racine, Moliere, La Fontaine*, frequently undervalued by their contemporaries, found in the following generation more fair and candid judges of their merits; and it was in the well-weighed admiration of the enlightened men of the eighteenth century, that the seventeenth received the full complement of its glory.'

M. *Suard* thinks that many writers are accustomed too much to narrow the meaning of the term *genius*. He is of opinion that every production of the mind, which presents new ideas under an interesting form,—that whatever bears the character of force and originality in the thought and in the expression, is the effect of genius; and, according to this view of the matter, he does not hesitate to class Vauvenargues as a man of genius, although he ranks not among creative minds and original writers.

A weak constitution, we are informed, obstructed the early application of M. DE V. At college, he discovered no ardour for study, and scarcely attained a superficial knowlege of the Latin. Entering early into the king's service, the pursuits of youth, and the dissipations of a military life, soon obliterated from his mind all that he had learned from his preceptors; and he died, we are told, without being able to read the works of Virgil and Tacitus in their original language. The space which embraces his whole life scarcely includes the period of the youth of ordinary men, for it terminated at the age of 32; and in this short career, a very few years seem to have been devoted to the pursuits which have ensured his celebrity.—He entered the service in 1734, at the age of 18, and in that same year made the campaign of Italy, as sub-lieutenant in the king's regiment of infantry.

'This was not a school,' observes M. *Suard*, 'adapted to prepare the materials for an *Introduction to the Knowlege of the Human Mind;* it was not in a camp, and in the midst of the active occupations of war, that a young officer of eighteen was likely to find means of forming a taste for meditation and study: but nature, in giving VAUVENARGUES an active disposition, had at the same time endowed him with judgment to direct its movements, and with that gravity which accompanies a habit of reflection.

'To a feeling and elevated mind, he united an ardent love of fame, and a strong desire of attaining it. These are the features which characterize his works. His modesty was equal to his merit; it was indeed excessive, and retarded his advancement.

'It was when admitted to his confidence that we felt all the force of the thought which he has so exquisitely expressed,—*the first days of spring are less graceful than the budding virtues of a young man.* Gentle, temperate, sensible, altogether similar *to the early days of spring*, his virtue made itself beloved at first sight: but time and opportunity could alone display all its qualities.

'Not only were his writings dictated by a pure morality, a sound judgment, and an understanding manly and vigorous, but they bespeak an elevation which can only belong to a superior mind; the softer emotions, which are intermixed with its noblest impressions, cannot be the sole fruit of reflection, and the result of mere calculation: it proceeds from the happiest temperament improved and perfected by reason, but which could never have been furnished by it.

'The virtues of VAUVENARGUES were not accompanied by austerity. The knowlege of mankind, which his profession favoured, was not lost on the young officer. He made due allowances for the infirmities of our common nature. His mildness and his high honour had engaged to him the esteem and affection of his associates in arms; and those of them who were capable of appreciating his rare merit expressed the veneration in which they held him, by giving him the appellation of Father. Though this denomination might be

be applied in the way of pleasantry, it shews how meekly he had borne his superiority.'

The Marquis made the campaign of Germany in 1741, and shared in the tragical and memorable retreat of that year from Bohemia. The cold was excessive, and his feeble frame suffered proportionably. He returned to France in 1742, with a ruined constitution, and his small fortune wholly exhausted. Nine years of service had procured him only the rank of captain, and he had no prospect of advancement.—In 1744 he quitted the army, and sought employment in the diplomatic line; and though he was a stranger at Court, and had no patron to support his suit, he met with more success than is usual in such circumstances. His first application obtained no notice: but to a second very neat letter, requesting an answer, he had a favourable reply from the minister. If nature, however, had shewn herself bountiful in forming the mind of our young philosopher, the divinity which presided over his condition in life, and over the incidents by which it was varied, appears to have been by no means propitious.

Returned to his family, in order to devote himself to the studies which would qualify him for the career on which he believed he was shortly to enter, he caught the small-pox; which proved to be of a most malignant kind, disfigured his features, and left him a confirmed and incurable invalid. 'Thus,' says his biographer, 'was this young man, full of energy of character, of activity of mind, and of generosity of sentiment, condemned to see all his endowments prove of no avail to him, and to wait in obscurity till a melancholy death should terminate a life which in its whole course scarcely exhibited an instant of felicity.'

In this emergency, one resource was still left, and to this he applied, namely, the study of letters. He employed himself in reviewing and arranging the reflections which he had committed to paper, in the course of his agitated life; and in 1746 he published his *Introduction to the Knowlege of the Human Mind*, a work which astonished those who were capable of appreciating it, and which makes us regret the future efforts that might have been expected from his pen, had not a premature death deprived him of the glory which his genius would have ensured to him.—Before this time, also, we find him enjoying the intimacy of and corresponding with *Voltaire*; and the terms on which he lived with the great hero of letters furnish a strong proof of the superiority of his pretensions.

It is observed by the biographer, that

'Most moral writers examine man under some one point of view. *La Rochefaucault* saw into the most secret recesses of the heart, and there

there detected the stratagems of self love; and he made it his object to contrast them with the plausible motives under which they are disguised: *La Bruyère*, with views more extensive and better defined, though less profound, describes the impressions which man occasions in others: *Montaigne* sketches those which he receives; and Vauvenargues portrays the dispositions by which he is actuated in society, in which he approaches to *Pascal*. The object of the latter was to induce men to undervalue this world, and to lay stress only on another; the aim of the young philosopher, on the contrary, was to raise us above the infirmities of our nature, by considerations drawn from our nature itself, and from our relations to our fellow-creatures. Living in the world, his reflections teach us the knowlege of men, in order to profit by it in the intercourse of life; and to expose to them their faults, that they may pardon those of others. *Pascal* seems to belong to a different order of beings, views men from the superior height of his own genius, and teaches us rather to know than to direct them: Vauvenargues instructs them by maxims of which he points out the application. *Pascal* traces the high road; Vauvenargues indicates the private path: the instructions of *Pascal* are observations, those of Vauvenargues are precepts. The encouraging tone of his doctrine is more in the manner of the antient than of the modern philosophers. *La Rochefaucault* humbles man by his false theory; *Pascal* afflicts and terrifies him with the picture of his miseries; *La Bruyère* amuses him by laying before his eyes his own caprices; Vauvenargues consoles him and teaches him self-esteem.'

"In reading Vauvenargues," says *Marmontel*, "I seem still to hear his voice; indeed, I know not whether his conversation had not something more animated and more delicate than even his exquisite writings.—He knew the world, but did not despise it. The friend of mankind, he classed vice among our misfortunes, and pity occupied in his breast the place of hatred and indignation. His known goodness, and mild eloquence, gave him an empire over the minds of those who were acquainted with him, superior to that which art and policy are ever able to secure. In him, the affability of the friend caused the superiority of the master to be loved. Gentle, sympathizing, and compassionate, he held our souls in his hands. An unalterable serenity concealed his sufferings from the eyes of friendship. In order to bear adversity, we have only to call to mind his example; and witnessing his equanimity, no one dared to be unhappy in his presence."

'All the enlightened men who have spoken of Vauvenargues have regarded him as a being of a superior order, a profound observer, and an eloquent writer, who had viewed human nature under new aspects, and given more attractive interest to moral discussions. They were struck with that pure love of virtue which is discoverable in so many forms in his works, and which dictated every line of them. Glory and virtue he represented as inseparable, and as the springs of all that is great in thought and action.'—

'This youthful sage, after languishing for years in a state of suffering which yielded to no remedy, and which he supported without complaint,

complaint, was conscious of his approaching end: but he spoke little of it, and prepared for it without the appearance of d squietude or terror. He died in the year 1747, surrounded by a few friends, distinguished by their talents and their character, who had never ceased to pay him the most friendly attentions. He astonished them as much by the unalterable calm of his latter days, as by the inexhaustible stores of his mind, and the natural eloquence of his discourse.'

Of the works which this interesting writer has left to us, those of the greatest merit are his *Introduction to the Knowlege of the Human Mind*, his *Critical Reflections on certain French Poets*, his *Characters*, and his *Maxims and Reflections*. Having dwelt so long on the accounts which have been preserved of this singular and amiable young man, our limits will not now permit us to lay before the reader any specimens of his pleasing and agreeable compositions, which abound in fine thoughts and striking observations. Though in his masterly piece of criticism, he is unjust to the father of the French drama, and unwarrantably partial to *Racine*, still he displays talents in his art which can scarcely be excelled.—His Introduction to the Knowlege of the Human Mind is rather a practical than a systematic work; it is a manual for the conduct of life,—in which view its merit is indeed great,—rather than a scientific performance; and it displays much natural penetration, rather than an extensive and profound acquaintance with the labours of other authors on the subject. Readers who are versed in the writings of Locke, Hume, Hartley, and Stewart, will be surprized to find so many of the conclusions of these great masters scattered through the pages of the lamented M. DE VAUVENARGUES.

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ART. XI. *Geschichte der drey letzten Jahrhunderte*, &c. *i. e.* A History of the last three Centuries; by JOHN GOTTFRIED EICHHORN. 6 Vols. 8vo. Gottingen.

IT is well known to the lovers literature, more especially to those who attend to its progress on the Continent, that Professor EICHHORN ranks among the most learned and elegant German writers of the present age; and that his critical labours have not only earned the applause of his countrymen, but have assigned to him an eminent place in the general republic of letters. We entertain, therefore, considerable expectations from any productions of his pen; and we should feel much disappointed if we found any of his performances either superficial or inelegant. We understand that, of late, he has in a great measure forsaken those branches of inquiry which first

first gave celebrity to his name, and has devoted himself principally to the study of history. Two important works written by him, a *General History of the World*, and an extensive *History of Literature*, are now publishing on the Continent; and they appear to have withdrawn his attention from the *Introduction to the Old Testament*, which has not long since been reprinted without additions or corrections.

The *History of the last three Centuries* cannot but increase our respect for its author; since the same acuteness, precision of ideas, and liberality of sentiment, which distinguished the critic, are every where visible in the historian. It was wisely judged, at the present time, to make the last three centuries the subject of a separate work, of such extent and composed in such a style as would render it both instructive and inviting to the generality of readers. The point of view in which the author has placed himself is thus stated:

'In composing this History, I consider the man of business; who, while attending to the events of the present days, wishes to obtain information respecting facts of past times, and has not leisure to consult many books; the student, who, yet engaged in his preparatory pursuits, feels the want of a manual on modern history, with literary references; the instructor of youth, who is desirous of obtaining an historical work which he may read with his pupils; and the man of general education, who wishes to renew the instruction of earlier years, and to compare his own views with those of other observers of mankind. The knowlege of history, even among literary persons, seldom extends beyond Europe: but in this work the most important facts of the history of all parts of the world may be found.'

The period, here comprized, peculiarly allows of being separately treated. It exhibits a new order of things, intelligible without much knowlege of preceding times, to which the historian has seldom occasion to refer; universally interesting, because it is immediately connected with and contains the assignable causes of all that we see and hear around us; and most susceptible of being described, because the art of printing has preserved sufficient documents to preclude the necessity of conjecture on the most important occurrences. The difficulty, which the historian of this age has to encounter, is not to collect materials, but to sift them; and to resist the temptation of entering too much into details, which, though they might interest many readers, would divert their attention from the main object. The present state of the world in general ought to be constantly before the writer's eyes; and he must neglect no circumstance which has materially contributed to produce it, though in itself it may appear

pear but an unimportant historical fact. We justly expect to learn from him not only what changes the world has witnessed, but also what it is become by and under these alterations. The advancing or retrograde state of civilization, and its concomitant arts and sciences, claim his notice, as well as the progress of political power. Professor EICHHORN has not gratified all our wishes in the last respect.

His account of political events, indeed, of wars and treaties, of the external relation of different states to each other, of the causes of their increased or diminished power, and of the nature of the bonds which united the rulers with their subjects at the different periods that came under his review, will probably satisfy the expectation of even a fastidious reader. Comprehensive views,—perspicuous and very exact statements of facts, and a truly philosophical spirit in the arrangement by which their true connection appears,—a clear developement of the political features of the times, and of the principal springs which put the great political machine in motion—united to a concise yet elegant style,—all these furnish strong claims to our approbation. We regret, however, to find too little attention paid to the intellectual state of the world, to the influence of those political changes on the happiness and prosperity of the people, and to the gradual improvement of society. Omissions of this nature must be considered as a very great defect in every general history, but particularly in a work like the present.

Every partial history ought to be composed with the view of furnishing materials for or becoming a part of the history of mankind; and where it is destined for a mixed and extensive public, and treats of a period probably the most remarkable in the annals of civilization and science, it ought not to be left entirely to the reader to draw his own conclusions, and form his own conjectures, on the progress of knowlege and of the necessary and luxurious arts. We require to be admitted into the society of our immediate ancestors, and to know the stages through which our commerce, our literature, and our civilization in general have passed, as well as by what steps we attained the present form of government and our weight in the scale of power These subjects deserve indeed to be treated, and have been treated, separately; and they threaten materially to swell the limits of a general work: but their introduction is absolutely necessary to finish the picture, and the results of the inquiries respecting them may be given without detail.

In some of the most interesting periods, however, these subjects are either entirely omitted in the volumes before us, or

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are slightly noticed in some general remarks. We are the more surprised at this omission, and the more regret it, because the author has formerly distinguished himself by his inquiries into the history of literature and the social arts, and because even in this work he has given some specimens of his ability for instructing on these topics, which excite our wishes for their more frequent occurrence. If it was not found advisable to break the chain of political events, by introducing remarks of a different nature, a few pages might with great propriety have been devoted to them at the conclusion of every period. In the history of Germany, Professor EICHHORN has subjected himself less to these reproaches; and in the History of England due attention is paid to the rise of commerce, and to the influence which it has manifested on the external and internal prosperity of this country.

We proceed now to a more specific view of the publication.—It consists of two parts, a *general* and a *particular* history of states and countries. This plan necessarily occasions some repetitions, but they are not frequent; and, on account of the different connection in which the same facts are represented, they are scarcely observable. In the general history, which occupies the first and second volumes, the outlines of the picture are drawn. They relate those events in which many nations were concerned, and shew their mutual relations, and the characteristics of the times.—Till towards the middle of the last century, the writer's object is almost entirely confined to Europe; and *bella, horrida bella*, form the bloody threads of his story:—to which he attaches other subjects that are worth notice.

An introduction well displays the appearance of the world at the beginning of the 16th century, when first the whole of Europe began to be the scene of general history; when the long struggle between liberty and oppression seemed to lead to an important issue; when the tyranny of the hierarchy rendered it odious even to its warmest friends; and when the establishment of standing armies, the consequent abolition of the system of vassalage, the new nature of warfare by means of subsidies, the discovery of America, and the invention of the art of printing, had laid the foundation for an entire revolution in the prevailing system of governments, of religion, and of social intercourse.

The history itself is divided into three periods, and chapters of very unequal length, which bear the following characteristic inscriptions: 1st. Ascendency of the house of Austria, to the year 1659. 2dly. Ascendency of France, from 1660 to 1700. 3dly. Balance of power in Europe, from 1700 to 1802.

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The numerous wars of the restless Charles crowned the history of his time with accounts of battles and conquests, and divide its pages only with the progress of religious truth by the Reformation. The whole world was then brought into contact. Through Charles, Africa and America, and through his great adversary Soliman, Africa and Asia, were drawn into the interests of Europe. The ambitious views of Charles descended to his son Philip II. whom no prince in modern times has equalled either in means or fair prospects of becoming master of Europe. In possession of the richest countries of that quarter of the globe, of the Philippines in Asia, of Tunis, the Cape de Verd, and the Canary Islands in Africa, and of vast empires and inexhaustible gold mines in America; with the whole trade to the East and West Indies, to the North seas and the Baltic, in his hands, to which he might easily have added that of the Levant; supported by a brave and experienced army, and a navy which had snatched the dominion of the seas even from the Turks; he appeared destined to command the world. Bigotry, however, and tyranny and folly, united to enervate the haughty sovereign; and the vengeance of fate accomplished his downfall in the destruction of the *Invincible Armada.*

The two branches of the house of Austria, which had for some time viewed each other with jealous eyes, are now reunited; and by the influence of crafty priests, they appear in arms as the defenders of the old faith. Two wars, one of 30 and the other of 40 years, carried on with all the cruelty of the barbarous ages, ravage the continent; and not only engage all the powers which had yet been known as actors on the political theatre of Europe, but also call into action the Northern States, which had hitherto taken but little share in the events of the south. The hero of Sweden holds for a short time the reins, but soon falls, and leaves to his brave Generals the task of obtaining a favorable peace for the Protestants. Their valour, and the profound politics of Cardinal *Richelieu*, produce the peace of Munster in 1648, and that of the Pyrenées in 1659, and give to Europe a new political system. France bears sway in the South; and Sweden, after the peace of Oliva, in the North.—Professor EICHHORN's details of this important period are ably given; the events which succeeded each other with such rapidity are well arranged; and the times are clearly brought before our view. By dividing the wars into several periods, according to the change of success, or of the relation and interests of the belligerent powers, he has prevented confusion, and enabled his readers to observe the

principles or spirit by which those powers were actuated. Gustavus Adolphus appears a great character; and, full of trust in Providence and a good cause, he rises above the difficulties which would have deterred common minds: yet it is truly said of him, when after the battle of Leipsic he was in the zenith of his glory, that notwithstanding his real greatness, he was unequal to the high station to which he had been raised.

Section II, containing the history of the period from 1660 to 1700, begins with a short statement of the circumstances which at that time rendered France pre-eminent. Louis XIV. surrounded by the greatest heroes of the age, and supported in his plans by the excellent measures of *Colbert*, found in his own inclinations sufficient encouragement fully to use the power which he possessed. Both in the cabinet and in the field, the influence of France was decisive, till the newly elevated William III. opposed England's rival, if not with splendid success, at least with a vigour that checked the torrent of French power, exhausted Louis's resources, and saved the independence of Europe.

Section III, inscribed *Balance of power in Europe*, continues the general history to the year 1801. It is divided into two periods. 1st, Foundation and preservation of the balance of Europe from 1700 to 1748. 2dly, Change of that balance, from 1748 to 1801. Prof. E. shews how in the first period, during the war on the Spanish succession, the balance of power was preserved in the South and West of Europe, by Austria and the naval states, against the ascendency of the house of Bourbon; and in the North, during the great northern war, by Poland, Denmark, and Russia, against the power of Sweden. He then proceeds to the happy interval of 25 years, from 1714 to 1739; which he designates by too flattering a title, the golden age of the 18th century, since its tranquillity was interrupted by the ambitious projects of Elizabeth of Parma; and he concludes with an account of the war on the Austrian succession from 1740 to 1748. The history of that contest, in which a new great actor on the political stage, in the person of Frederick of Prussia, makes his *début* to the astonishment of the world, will be read with pleasure. In the second period, the balance of Europe was changed in two wars of seven years, by land and sea. At the termination of these, it was, in the author's opinion, maintained on the continent, but completely disturbed on the ocean. This disproportion of naval power continued also during the American war, while the equilibrium was to be preserved in the North by the

gradual dissolution of the republic of Poland, till the French revolution threatened to change the order of things, and to establish a new æra in the history of the world. The power, which at the present moment stands on the brink of extinction, was at the commencement of that period in the most important stage of its growth; and this was the time at which it must either sink back into insignificance, or decide by its weight the fate of Europe. We wish that we could make room for the passage with which Prof. E. introduces the account of the successful struggle of Prussia; in which he ably states the gradual advancements made by that country in political consequence and strength, and the infatuation which prevented other nations from marking her progress.

It is impossible to read the history of the seven years' war without comparing its occurrences with those of more recent date; without regretting the melancholy change from political wisdom to folly, from vigour to supineness, from ever watchful foresight to imprudent confidence; and without bewailing the fate of those heroes, who in younger days were the partakers of Frederick's victories and glory, and who lately fell as veterans, covered with wounds, or subdued by grief for the expiring honor of their country! When Prof. E. says that the close alliance between France and Austria, formed in 1756 with a view to the destruction of Prussia, had excited astonishment in Europe, he must have forgotten that the treaty which united Great Britain and Prussia had preceded it, and that the differences of the former of these powers with France, respecting the forests of Acadia, had long threatened to kindle the flames of discord.

The naval war, between the years 1755 and 1762, as honorable to Great Britain as it was destructive to the maritime strength of France, affords an opportunity of recording the changes which have taken place in the empire of the seas, since the beginning of the 17th century.

Our contest with America, and the establishment of an independent state in the new world, form the next leading feature in history. The events of that period are sufficiently known, and they are here related faithfully, though perhaps with some bias towards the British ministry. We must also pass over the account of the dissolution of Poland, and the several wars which arose from or were connected with that tyrannical proceeding of an unnatural triple alliance; formed only for the infamous purpose of common plunder.

If, after having accompanied Prof. E. with pleasure through a maze of three centuries, we feel not completely satisfied, the deficiency arises from his want of attention, as we have already

noticed, to the internal state of society, and the progress of arts and sciences, during that period. The inhabitants of the world, at the termination of the 18th century, were as different in point of knowlege, principles, and customs, from their ancestors of the 16th century, as the states of which they were members were in their power and relations; and the change had taken place under revolutions and important struggles, which demanded attention as much as those of our own days: assuredly, then, a view of its progress and principal stages would have graced the history of the last three centuries, and have gratified every reader of taste, or even of well-directed curiosity.

Volume II. narrates the change in the balance of power, effected by the French Revolution, and the wars which were connected with it. The account of the revolution itself, and of its causes and progress, is reserved for the partial history of France: but its consequences on the political state of Europe at large are here the objects to be described. Great as these consequences have been, it is still too early to judge of the result; and though the storm, which began to gather in 1788, has now altered its direction, it is more violent than ever. All that we have witnessed is, perhaps, only the preparation for a great catastrophe, as unexpected as some of the changes that precede it. The historian must therefore, as yet, only relate; he has no clue to guide him in the labyrinth, no sure test by which he can appreciate each new occurrence. The last eighteen years are fresh in our memory; we have watched them as they passed; they have formed the principal subjects of discussion in the senate, in the dining-room, and in the study; we have successively hailed them with pleasure, witnessed their events with compassion, gazed at them with astonishment and horror, and contemplated them with grief and dismay. We will therefore now pass slightly over the ground which has so often been trodden, and refer those who wish for more detail to Prof. E.'s work, as a valuable addition to the numerous sources of such information.

Who can doubt, at the present moment, that the selfish policy of the continental states prepared their present fate in the fertile plains of the unfortunate Poland? We could have wished to see some circumstances in the late continental wars more clearly explained, than we have here found them: as for instance, the causes of the failure of the first coalition against France, and the movements of Prussia in Champaigne. As Prof. E. must have had access to several sources of information, not equally known in this country, we regret that he has thrown no light on these important transactions.—The peace of Campo Formio is considered entirely as a *ruse de guerre* of

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Bonaparte, by which he saved his then tottering credit.—The battle of Copenhagen, memorable not only because it terminated a war which added a brave, though not a great nation, to the enemies of England, but also on account of the singular circumstances which attended it, is mentioned in two lines only. We know that the sentiments respecting the issue of the 2d April, 1801, on the continent, differ considerably from those which we are here taught to entertain: but it is impossible to deny that it deserves a place in the annals of naval warfare, as well as many sea or land battles which Prof. E. has described with so much skill.—It seems as if any expression of sentiments respecting *Bonaparte*'s conduct, beyond his measures as a General, has been carefully avoided. With the exception of a passage in the 6th volume, where the devastations, which the French army under his command committed in Egypt during a retreat, are frankly confessed, we every where perceive the cautious writer, who suppresses those statements which do not materially belong to his province, and which as a contemporary historian he could scarcely now venture to exhibit to the world in their true coloring. Such is the state of the continent of Europe!

Vol. III. relates the history of Spain, Portugal, France, England, Holland, Germany, Italy, and Swisserland; the IVth., that of Russia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Hungary and Transylvania, and the Ottoman empire. The general view of the power of Spain, in her most glorious days, at the beginning of the reign of Philip II, when she commanded obedience by her arms and respect by her superiority in the arts and sciences, is a highly finished picture; of which scarcely a single trait retains the stamp of truth at the end of that bigotted and gloomy tyrant's reign, who, according to some historians, laughed but once in his life.—When Prof. E. supposes the sanguinary Catharine of Medicis to have been sincere in her apparent reconciliation to the Hugonots, with whose blood she had during thirty years inundated France, and that unforeseen circumstances turned that reconciliation into a cause of an infernal massacre, he evinces more faith in her humanity than we can persuade ourselves to entertain. That even *Coligny* ventured to go to court, and the prudent queen of Navarre consented to a fatal marriage, are circumstances which prove only how well the plan was laid. Are we not assured that the queen-mother encouraged her son in that nefarious transaction, and that she praised the art with which he met the deluded queen of Navarre? Was not the kindness shewn to the protestant leaders too great to be sincere in the heart of a zealous catholic prin-

cess, who had given sufficient proofs that she was capable of removing the obstacles to her designs at any price? It is much in favour of the author's history of France, that the perusal of it constantly recalled to our minds the events of the last 18 years, as we beheld the props of social order and prosperity falling one after the other by the neglectful conduct, or pulled down by the tyrannical measures, of the French rulers and their corrupt servants.—The account of the revolution is written with great moderation and impartiality.

During the period under review, no country has suffered so much by wars in which it had no immediate interest, as Germany. Destined by her constitution to be the abode of peace, she has till the middle of the 17th century been afflicted with religious contests; afterward been implicated in the destructive wars of Louis XIV; and since the year 1780, has been almost continually involved by the ambitious house of Austria in its private differences. Yet, under the influence of that constitution which is now no more, and was undoubtedly no longer capable of securing to her a political independence, she has risen in point of prosperity and civilization to an eminence, which places her justly by the side of her enlightened neighbours. Professor EICHHORN's description of the state of Germany, at the end of the reign of Joseph II, may, perhaps, by some who are still accustomed to look with contempt on German literature and taste, be considered as flowing from a partial pen; and it certainly forms a striking contrast to the sentiments which we have lately seen expressed in English publications of considerable reputation: but we should incur the suspicion of at least equally great partiality, if we refused all credit to the Professor's judgment. It is, however, too long for insertion.

With regard to Italy, its history has long ceased to form one whole, and is an aggregate of historical relations which have little or no connection with each other. They are, therefore, very properly kept separate. Under the head of *Italy of the Pope*, a view of the decline of the papal supremacy is given, which includes also a short history of the Jesuits: but it is very imperfect. Some of the popes, as Leo X. and Sixtus V. are not even mentioned by name; though they have surely had more influence on the state of the world than many of the Italian princes whose names Prof. E. has deemed worthy of being recorded. Those who wish to refer to his work will not thank him for this neglect.

Russia, who at the beginning of the 16th century freed herself under Ivan I. from a yoke which she had borne nearly 250 years, advanced under Peter I and Catharine II, with

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giant strides, from the barbarism and despotism of the East towards the civilization and refinement of the West. The progress which she has made in some measure conceals the scenes of horror and bloodshed, by which it was often promoted, and at other times impeded; and we arrive by a checkered path at a fair prospect under the reign of Alexander.—Poland, during her aristocratic struggles, by which she hastened to an untimely end;—Sweden under her Gustavus Adolphus, his vain daughter Christina, the unpolished and bold Charles XII. and the late promising Gustavus;—Prussia under the wise elector Frederick William, the martial Frederick William I., and his great successor;—Hungary, a prey to warlike chiefs, and constantly bleeding in honorable yet fruitless struggles for political and religious liberty;—are the subjects of passages which will please both by their historical truth, and the manner in which that truth is conveyed. If a preference can be given to the composition of the account of one country over that of the other, it is, in our opinion, due to the history of Sweden.

Volume V. leads us into Asia, and opens a scene gratifying only as far as it makes us conscious of our advantages over the unfortunate inhabitants of that ill-fated garden of the world. The long preface to this volume contains one of the most elegant and impressive descriptions of the state of Asiatic nations and governments in general, that we remember to have read. While the yoke of their own despots, and their host of governors and eunuchs, constantly threatens to crush them, the civilized European has, alas! completed their misfortunes, and rendered their abject and miserable condition still more lamentable.—After many excellent remarks on the progress of the Europeans in Asia, Professor E. sums them up in these words; the truth of which the friend of mankind may in vain wish to deny, and which must strike our own countrymen with deep compunction.

'During the last 300 years, Europeans have penetrated to all corners of Asia to which they could obtain access, not for the purpose of imparting to its inhabitants more extensive knowlege, and superior laws, manners, and customs, but in order to communicate their own vices and depravities, their diseases, and their evils; not to lighten the yoke of the oppressed, but to render it more oppressive by a new one; not to lead them by civilization and by enlightening their understanding to a rational enjoyment of life, but to lower human nature in them still more, to exhaust and to plunder, to tyrannize and to murder. Many districts of Asia, since the arrival of the Europeans, groan under a treble slavery; the despotism of their own kings or chiefs, the oppression of their European masters,

and the extortions of covetous servants of European mercantile corporations.'

'The contents of the 5th and 6th volumes afford but too many affecting proofs of the truth of these assertions. What is the modern history of several parts of Asia, Africa, and America, except a relation of the cruelties and injuries by which Europeans have rendered themselves masters of regions to which they could produce no lawful claim?—The whole history of Asia is divided into that of the European possessors of Arabia, Persia, India, China, Japan, Thibet, Tartary, and New Holland. As the discovery of many of these occurs in the last three centuries, and the others were at best but little known previously to those periods, we are here furnished with an abstract of their whole history, as far as it can be traced; accompanied by an interesting account of the navigation, discoveries, and foreign commerce of Europeans. It is evident that the author has made use of all the sources which promised authentic information; indeed, he has given proofs of indefatigable industry, and of an acute discrimination in distinguishing the truth from native fable, or from the numerous conjectures of credulous travellers. Our deficiency in the knowlege of our own species, and the still greater poverty of our ancestors in that respect, are here strikingly evident. That some nations exist, and that their numbers have wasted away in the struggles which they have supported against foreign power and oppression, form not unfrequently all the information which can be obtained with regard to them.

Siberia was completely unknown before the year 1499, when Anika Stroganow, excited by the annual visits of strangers of peculiar colour and features, and encouraged by the prospects of lucrative discoveries, sent some of his people with those strangers to their country; from whom he obtained some knowlege of the districts beyond the Uralian mountains, and laid in fact the foundation for the Russian empire in Asia. In the year 1578, a few thousand Cossacks, under their bold leader Jermak Timosiegev, having lost their way, began the reduction of Siberia, and obtained the assistance of Russia; from which time the conquests of the latter made a rapid progress. Kamschatka was known only by report in 1690, but became soon afterward the scene of Russian barbarity; which, in union with destructive diseases, has reduced the population to a few thousands.—The discoveries of *Vasco de Gama* gave to the Portuguese an empire in Asia, which they increased under almost incredible cruelties, but which they have been obliged to abandon gradually since the beginning

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of the 17th century.—*Magellan* established the influence of Spain in the Manillas and Mariannc islands; and religion was abused as a pretext for the injustice with which they were treated.—In proportion as the Portuguese lost ground in Asia, the Dutch gained footing: but they were neither milder nor less covetous masters than their predecessors.—The Danes were in 1618 led by a Dutch factor *Boschower* to India, where their possessions have afforded them great advantages.—France has never obtained a lasting influence in India; while her rival is now become the lawgiver of the East.

The romantic life of the tribes of Arabia affords few materials for the pages of history. The situation of their country and their habits have alike contributed to prevent, or to render useless, the attempts of their powerful neighbours to subdue them.—Persia exhibits true eastern greatness in the different periods of Schah Abbas and Nadir Schah, but has been enfeebled by Russia.—India has been the scene of important changes: but we cannot expect new information respecting them from a continental writer, since English works must be his principal authorities.—In the history of China, the long reign of the late Emperor Kienlong is not only the most known, but also by far the most interesting. If the accounts which have been given of that truly remarkable man may be credited, his name deserves to be recorded in the list of the ornaments of his age.—Professor E. seems to have been unacquainted with the latest accounts of New Holland by Collins and others, since he makes no mention of the progress of the British colony in New South Wales.

The greatest part of Africa is *terra incognita* to the geographer; and a much larger part must be such to the historian: who can do no more than gather a few fragments. Prof. E. thought, however, that it might be useful not only to collect those fragments, but also to point out the regions which are still wrapt in historical darkness; and he therefore proceeds from north to south, over the whole vast continent. The events of the French invasion of Egypt form the principal part of the history of that country; and they are related with great impartiality. British valour and British honor shine in the account.

Almost all nations of Europe, that possess a sea coast, have attempted to form settlements in Africa: gold and slaves being the allurements which that region holds out.—The Turks, the Portuguese, the French, the Spaniards, the Dutch, the English, and the Danes, have to this day maintained a footing: but Prussia and Sweden have been obliged to abandon the project. In the year 1682, the Elector of Branden-

burg, Frederick William, with the view of increasing his power and commerce, and by the advice of his minister *Raule*, sent two ships to Guinea; the success of which excited such enthusiasm, that an African Company was established, first at Berlin and afterward at Embden, under great expectations. Large sums of money were embarked, and lost; Frederick William's successor endeavoured to support the company, but it became insolvent in 1698; and Frederick William the First of Prussia sold the four forts, which had been erected, for 7200 ducats, to the Dutch West-India company.—The wild scheme of the Swede, *Wadstrom*, who in 1779 projected the plan of establishing a Swedish republic on the western coast of Africa, experienced the fate which was foretold by less enthusiastic persons.

James, Duke of Courland, founded likewise, in the year 1640, a short-lived colony on the Ivory-coast of Guinea.

In the history of America, Prof. E. pursues the same method which he adopted in that of Asia. After a short account of the discovery of the Western Continent, he speaks first of the independent America of the natives, then of the United States, and lastly of the America of the Europeans. As, in so short an abstract as his plan requires, the merit of an author cannot consist in new matter, but in the arrangement of that which was known before, and as the information on these points must in a great measure be derived from British sources, we do not enter into farther detail.

Those who read history merely for amusement, and seek in such a pursuit only entertaining anecdotes and biographical curiosities, will probably not feel much inclined to peruse the six volumes of Prof. EICHHORN: but for those who wish to lay a solid foundation in the study of modern history,—who desire to become acquainted with the times, and not with single facts only,—and who acknowlege that the name of history ought not to be bestowed on tales,—we know few works that will better gratify their wishes than that which we have now analysed. Though far from being perfect, or even so perfect as it *might* be, it is a very valuable addition to literature; and its worth is considerably enhanced by numerous literary references, and a copious index both of the names that occur in the text, and of the authorities which have been quoted in the notes.

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ART. XII. *Grundzüge des gegenwärhgen Zeitalters, &c. i. e.* The principal Features of the present Age. By J. G. FICHTE. 8vo. Berlin. 1806.

THIS publication contains seventeen lectures delivered by M. FICHTE during the winter of 1804-5 at Berlin, but to what description of audience we are not apprized; though that information, and an account of the success which he experienced, would have been acceptable, as indicating how far such inquiries as are here instituted can be understood and relished by the inhabitants of Berlin. Those who expected, as the title would lead *us* to anticipate, the result of the experience and observations of a man distinguished for his genius and originality of ideas, and who wished to know in what light his age and his contemporaries appeared to him, must have felt the same disappointment which we have experienced. The writer is one of those heroes of modern German philosophy, who, during the last twenty years, have endeavoured to give a new form to all the sciences; or rather have pretended to be the first that actually founded a real science. For a while, he excited considerable attention: but the applause, which he gained by the singular productions of his undoubted genius, was much less than he expected; and since he was actually persecuted and driven from the university of Jena, on account of some of his philosophical principles, he seems to have considered his age and his contemporaries in a very gloomy light: for to his disappointments, and to a proud disgust, we in a great measure ascribe the tenor of the lectures before us, though they profess to have no connection with the experience of the author or any other person. To relate and to reason on actual facts, to describe any age or period of time from observation, M. FICHTE supposes to be the province of an annalist; while the philosopher forms and writes a history of mankind *à priori*; and then only suffers experience to determine with which period of the history, that is to possess all the certainty of abstract sciences, a particular age may agree. It is on this principle that he proposes to characterize the present age.

We do not mean to follow the lecturer through the labyrinths of his reasoning, since we conceive that we shall fulfil our duty to our readers, and consult their comfort as well as our own, if we make them acquainted only with the general tenor of his inquiries. Indeed, as we are not initiated in the mysteries of his philosophy, we should often be incapable of communicating his sentiments in all their transcendant purity. He places himself on an elevation much beyond his contemporaries, viz. on the throne of the science which he considers as his

his creation, the pure science of reason, which is to give principles to and guide our inquiries in all inferior sciences. We suppose that, on that high station, every thing appears in a different light from that in which we, who belong to the crowd below, are enabled to behold it; and we must therefore ascribe it to our ignorance, if we are not capable of comprehending even the author's *popular* discussions, where they go back to first principles. This at least is evident, that he wishes to establish a system of idealism, though he seems not to tread in the footsteps of Berkeley.

As M. FICHTE takes a circuitous route in his inquiries, we are presented with his views of a variety of general subjects; such as the nature and true origin of civil society; the real value and purport of Christianity, and the true tenor of it; the history of mankind, &c. He proceeds on a principle derived as a postulate from his higher philosophy, or pure science of reason, where its truth is said to be proved as absolutely necessary, which he thus expresses:—the purpose of the terrestrial life of mankind, as a species, is to regulate during that life all their relations with free will, according to the dictates of reason;—and from this principle he infers that there must necessarily be five periods in the progress of mankind. During the first, reason governs man as instinct, or he is in a state of innocence; in the second, that instinct is changed into an external authority, by which the government of reason is supported; the third struggles against that authority, and all authority, and produces the age of indifference to truth, and of complete licentiousness; in the fourth, truth is esteemed and loved as the highest good, which is the age of commencing justification; and, in the fifth, man elevates himself to become a pure impression of reason, and enters on the age of accomplished justification. Through these periods, the human species must pass: but the most civilized nations are always to be considered as forming the criterion of the age, and individuals may be advanced to a new period, while their contemporaries are still in the preceding stage. The lecturer clearly insinuates that he considers himself as advanced much before the age in which he lives: which, in his opinion, is passing through the third period, or the middle between the *blind* reign of reason, and the *enlightened* reign of reason, and therefore is in a sort of intellectual and moral anarchy. Egotism, and consequently vice, are the leading features of the age in which men will acknowlege that only to be true which they can comprehend consistently with common sense, and that only to be binding which promotes their own interest.

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Pursuing, then, the deductions in his own way, the lecturer discovers that the third period is also the age of writers and scribblers, and of a rage for superficial reading and judging; and even literary Reviews are placed among the necessary phænomena of the period. Whenever this philosopher descends from his height of abstraction and technical language, we listen to him with profit and pleasure, though it is not on many points that we can agree with him. Thus his remarks on the prevailing *cacoethes scribendi et legendi*, its causes and effects, and the episode in the sixth lecture on the art of reading, contain many important truths and good advice: but we allude particularly to his inquiries into the nature and progress of civil society, the formation of states, and the relation of their members and subjects to each other. Though a great part of these discussions is abstract, they are not useless, nor are they communicated in language which will be unintelligible to the uninitiated. M. FICHTE commences by describing what he calls the pure form of a state, which he defines to be, *the direction of all the powers of individuals to the end or purpose of the whole species*, or, which in a state is the same thing, of *all its members*. He then shews in how many different ways this may be effected, and how personal, civil, and political liberty may be secured; elucidating his remarks by a retrospect of history: into which, however, he carries his favorite system, viewing facts constantly through the medium of a philosophy which may be called an ideal Spinozism.

Respecting religion and Christianity, the author seems to entertain very singular ideas. In and through it, he says, man is led to the highest degree of perfection: but we can no where find a clear statement of the signification which he assigns to the term religion, and which is evidently not such as is commonly attached to it. Christianity, in his opinion, has never yet appeared publicly in all its purity, and as yet has only begun to act its part: but the present age is on the point of divesting itself of the superstition which has hitherto prevented its true spirit from appearing, and to realize the effects which it is intended to produce.

We are fully aware that we can convey only a very imperfect idea of M. FICHTE's turn of thinking: but our apology rests partly on our own inability to penetrate the depths of his philosophy: partly on the nature of his reasoning, which renders an abstract peculiarly difficult; and partly on the technical language which he employs, and which is not easily to be exchanged for other and particularly foreign terms. In order to afford some idea of this philosopher's manner, we

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give the translation of a short passage, as faithful as we can make it, from the introduction to an inquiry into the nature of history:

'Whatever really exists, exists absolutely and necessarily; and it exists necessarily such as it is; it could neither not exist, nor exist otherwise. In whatever truly exists, therefore, no beginning or changeableness, no voluntary cause, is possible.—The One, truly existing, and existing absolutely through itself, is what all languages call God. The existence of God is not the cause or reason of knowlege, so that they might be separated from each other, but it is absolutely knowlege itself: his existence, or the knowlege, is entirely one and the same thing; in knowlege he exists absolutely as he is in himself, as a power absolutely resting on itself; and to say that he exists absolutely, or that knowlege exists absolutely, is saying one and the same thing.—A world only exists in knowlege; and knowlege itself is the world: the world is therefore mediately, and through knowlege, the divine Being itself. If, then, any one should say that the world might also not exist, that it once did not exist, and had been made by a voluntary act of the Deity, it is the same as if he said: God might not exist, and had once not existed: but by a voluntary act, which he might also have omitted, he resolved to exist. This existence, of which we have just been speaking, is the absolute existence without time; and whatever is placed in that existence can be known *à priori* only in the world of pure thought; it is unchangeable at all times.'

We imagine that our readers will not desire farther specimens of this production, nor a more copious view of its contents. Indeed, we are disposed to regret the time which we have devoted to the perusal of it; and even after having taken this trouble, we should almost have been inclined to conceal the scanty fruits of our toil, but that we consider the present communication of them as useful in warning others against similar disappointment.

Sch...e.

ART. XIII. *Geist der Zeit*, &c. *i. e.* The Spirit of the Times, by ERNEST MORITZ ARNDT. 12mo. 1806.

THE method which M. ARNDT pursues, in the delineation of his age and cotemporaries, is almost diametrically opposite to that of M. *Fichte*, in the work which we have announced in the preceding article. While the latter pretends to divest himself of all personal impressions that the world might have made on him, and to pronounce truths as undeniable as the dictates of reason, the former professes not to offer any thing more than the views and opinions of an individual: his intention in writing is to give vent to his feelings, to convey to others the impressions which times and men

have left on his mind, and to lay before the public the fears and hopes of a heart warmly interested in the state of his own species, desirous of leading them to a consciousness of their real situation, and longing to kindle in others the flame which warms his own bosom. He speaks and reasons on actual facts alone, on himself and on mankind around him, and looks back into past times merely for the sake of a comparison with the present. Equally avoiding flattery and invectives, he says only what he feels, but, on important subjects, says all that he feels; not desiring to render any truth palatable to the world by an artificial garb. Inspired by the example of the worthies of former ages, whom their cotemporaries hated and persecuted, but whom posterity reveres for their undaunted love of truth, he throws down the gauntlet to all those who endeavour to suppress light, and to deceive mankind.

Such are the tone and tenor of this writer's professions, the sincerity of which we see no reason to doubt. He has, at least, faithfully adhered to his promise of a frank confession of his sentiments; he by no means avoids those subjects on which it is now scarcely safe in Germany to speak or write the truth; and he betrays no symptom of interested party-spirit.

We do not, however, find M. ARNDT's sentiments, and his manner of stating them, so praiseworthy as we believe his intentions to be. He is, as we know from several other publications which have proceeded from his pen, possessed of a very lively imagination, and ardent feelings; and he betrays a considerable degree of affectation of strength and originality in his way of expressing himself. By the former, he has been led in the work before us to many exaggerations and gloomy views of things, and sometimes to great aberrations from his main subject; while the latter seduces him into much less plain and dignified language, than he who assumes the office of the monitor of his age, and addresses in particular the enlightened part of the community, ought to adopt. Thus, by blaming every thing, he renders his correction unimpressive; and by laying the dark colours too strongly on his picture, he makes the features indistinct. His complaints are directed against his age in a variety of views; and he objects to the literary, political, and moral qualities of his cotemporaries. The justice of many of his observations is undeniable, particularly with regard to his native country. Thus he censures with very great propriety the rage for proposing new systems, the separation of literary men from active life, and their desire of seeming to know every thing; and he points out the superficiality, the loss of respect for the learned, and

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the extinction of scientific ardour, which are the necessary consequences of those faults: but he shuts his eyes to the wide diffusion of knowlege, and to the intimate connection which has been established between the most distant branches of science, the utility of which undoubtedly deserves attention.

The second part of this production is the least objectionable, and the most interesting. Here the writer takes a view of the principal nations of the present age, and proves himself to be a man of extensive knowlege of the world, and of acute observation. The Germans he pities; the Italians he considers as deserving of their fate, and incapable of being free; of the Spaniards he entertains great hopes, and he anticipates, from the nature of their country and the character of the inhabitants, the approach of better times.

'A nation of 11 millions of men (says he) is now tributary to the French, and wages wars in which it has no interest. Yet nature has placed eternal mountains between the two people. Had the courage of the antient Cantabrians and Celtiberians now existed, a French army might indeed have crossed the Pyrenées, but none would have returned. Yet the time of deliverance approaches. All America will be free, and Spain will be obliged to live within herself, and will be happy: Portugal will be subservient, because she ought, and is an excrescence on a healthy body if she be not united to Spain; priests will lose the lustre of holiness, and kings will lose their thrones, unless the former mean to work and the latter to govern. Then the Spaniards will be again what once they were, one of the most flourishing and powerful nations of Europe.'

Of the Russians, the author has, from observation, no great expectations; but the Swedes, he thinks, are destined to be the rulers of the North. To Prussia, if she aims at aggrandisement and to join greater nations in partaking of their plunder, he foretells the fate of the ass which made a common cause with the lion. The power of England he wishes to be preserved, but he fears her ruin, not from external but internal causes. The wish which has long prevailed on the continent to see England humiliated, on account of her commercial despotism, draws from him these observations:

'Many think that nothing would be more fortunate than for the French to force the bank of London, destroy the British fleet, and then return home. Fools! shall one nation bury Europe under her ruins? do you hope for justice after her destruction? have the French taught us to love their moderation and justice so as to make us wish for them? I know no greater misfortune than that they should conquer England. They would give us no free trade; and the naval dominion in the hands of these dreadful tyrants of the continent would be an iron weight from which no power could relieve us.'

He then turns to England, and thus apostrophizes her:

'Britains; you were once a noble people. Your constitution gave spirit and power; you had poets and orators, astronomers and discoverers; you were free, high minded, and just. On the banks of the Ganges and the Senegal, and in Jamaica, the morals, the virtues, and the admirable constitution of Englishmen were lost! Oppressors became oppressed, and despots became slaves! It is evident that, during the last 30 years, you have been, and that you still are, on the decline. Victories by land and sea militate nothing against this assertion; such proofs of glory and virtue many nations can produce, when every thing else is lost that rendered them worthy of being a people. Should you be overwhelmed, and France become the despot of the seas, the last spark of European liberty is extinguished. You will perish by no power but your own. You are yet more a nation than most of us: but how long will you remain so? You have been so great that your fall would shake the world.'

A distinct section is devoted to *Bonaparte*; of whose character and actions M. ARNDT expresses his sentiments with a freedom that must now be rare on the continent, yet in language which is free from invective. We have often been told that opinions abroad respecting the ruler of France differed widely from those which are prevalent among us: but we may conclude, from the pages of this writer, that many think though few dare to speak or write as we do. M. ARNDT wrote, it seems, before the last war with Austria was entirely finished; and it appears that, even at that time, many persons expected from *Bonaparte* the deliverance of Europe; for he warns against this delusion, and refers to former proofs of faithlessness and deception.—These effusions of a patriotic mind may excite our respect for the source from which they flow; and if they have afforded the writer the satisfaction of having fulfilled his duty, he has not written in vain: but we fear that the voice of truth is now drowned in the din of arms, and that any effect from a patriot's advice must be expected only in better times. Sch...e.

ART. XIV. *Mémoires de l' Institut*, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute, Vol. VI. 4to. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe.

CONTRARY to the usual practice observed in the publication of these Memoirs, which (as our readers know) has been to issue at the same time three parts of the same volume, each devoted to a different branch of literature or philosophy, we have on the present occasion received only that part of Vol. VI. which relates to the *Physical and Mathematical Sciences*; and we understand that it is the intention of the Institute thus to

to give them separately in future, as opportunity enables each to be completed.

G.2.

In the *History* of this volume, we are furnished with *notices* of two eminent departed members of this learned body, M. *Méchain*, the French astronomer, and Dr. *Priestley*, the English metaphysician, chemist, and theologian.

Historical Notice respecting M. *Méchain*: by M. DELAMBRE, perpetual Secretary.—The eulogist informs us that *Pierre-François-André Méchain*, a member of the National Institute and of the Board of longitude, F.R.S. *London*, &c. was born at Laon, in the department of Aisne, April 16, 1744, and died in the province of Valencia in Spain, of an epidemic disorder, as he was prosecuting an undertaking for measuring an arc of the meridian, Sept. 20, 1799. It will be unnecessary for us to recount to the scientific reader, all the services which this zealous and indefatigable mathematician rendered to astronomy: but M. DELAMBRE displays with becoming assiduity the merits of the deceased member of the Institute, and the benefits conferred by him on the philosophical world. Having discovered at an early age a singular taste for mathematics, *Méchain* was taken by his relations to Paris, where he was patronized by M. *de Lalande*, was entered in the depôt of the marine, and afterward made two voyages with M. *de la Bretonniere*, to survey the coasts of France from Newport to St. Maloes. The first memoirs, which made him known as an astronomer, were on the occultation of Aldebaran which had been observed in 1744, on the great eclipse of the sun in 1778, and on the opposition of Jupiter in 1779. After this period, he rapidly advanced to celebrity, became in 1782 a member of the French Academy, and in 1785 was intrusted with the direction of the *Connoissance des Temps*.—He was also united with M. M. *Cassini* and *Legendre* in measuring a series of triangles, to correspond with those of the English mathematicians, for the purpose of rectifying the relative positions of the observatories of Greenwich and Paris; of which *Méchain* gave details in the Memoirs of the Academy. When the Academy also was consulted by the Constituent Assembly, on the choice of a new system of measures, and proposed for the base of this measure a quarter of the earth's meridian, the length of which arc was to be ascertained with the greatest possible exactness, M. *Méchain* was one of those who were appointed to this important undertaking. The arc proposed to be measured extended from Dunkirk to Barcelona. In the preparation of astronomical instruments and other necessary apparatus, so much time was consumed, that it was not till the year 1792 that *Méchain* could proceed to the object of his destination; and he had

had not gone far on his journey towards Spain, where he was appointed to measure triangles, when, owing to the singular construction of his carriage and the not less singular appearance of its contents, he was stopped at Essone, on suspicion of being furnished with *counter-revolutionary instruments*. At last, however, he was suffered to proceed; and from Sept. to Nov. 1792, he was occupied in fixing on all the points proper for the angles of his triangles, by which he meant to measure the space comprized between the parallel of Barcelona and that of Perpignan, with the exception of two points in the Pyrenées. In the following winter, his labours were interrupted, and indeed his life was nearly destroyed, by a violent blow received in endeavouring to stop an hydraulic machine, which a medical friend at Barcelona had lately constructed, which he had inspected with him at his particular request, and which had overpowered and endangered the Doctor and his servant. He was taken up senseless: his collar bone was dislocated and broken, together with several of his ribs; and he was otherwise bruized and lacerated; so that for three days he remained without hope of recovery. When he became convalescent, he lamented more the loss of the favourable season for observation, than the personal sufferings which he had endured; and with all the enthusiasm of science, he hastened to prosecute his labours. We shall not recount the obstacles with which the war, that now broke out between France and Spain, interrupted the execution of his plans; and with what assiduity, in a subsequent and more peaceable period, he renewed and extended his observations on the coast of Spain opposite to the Baleares. It is sufficient to add that no hardships, no labours, no dangers, could divert him from his purpose; and that, before he had completed the object of his mission, he died a martyr to his ardent zeal for the sciences, in consequence of having caught an epidemic disorder which prevailed in the district where he then was, and which had been fatal to several of his attendants.

The eulogist represents *Méchain* to have been remarkably modest and silent, seldom speaking at the meetings of the Society. At the end of the Memoir, we learn that, before his last expedition, he intrusted to M. DELAMBRE all his registers and MSS.; extracts from which, it is observed, will contribute more to *Méchain*'s praise than the most eloquent discourse.—He married in 1777 *Theresa Marjou*, by whom he had a daughter and two sons, both of whom are following their father's steps, and are already known to science.

Historical Eulogy of Joseph Priestley, by M. CUVIER, perpetual Secretary. If Dr. *Priestley* could peruse the account of himself which is here given to the French National Institute, by one of

its illustrious members, he would on the whole perhaps be gratified, but with the whole he could not be pleased. As a philosopher, he receives considerable praise; and the virtuous energy with which M. CUVIER condemns the disgraceful proceedings of the Birmingham rioters, and laments over the want of liberality which forced him to abandon his native land, would be peculiarly satisfactory to his manes; especially as his own countrymen do not appear to have generously appreciated his worth, nor charitably commiserated his misfortunes. In his ptofession of a divine, however, Dr. *Priestley* obtains little that is complimentary from the French eulogist. While in his character of natural philosopher he is represented to have been circumspect, cautious, patient, and modest in the pursuit of truth, he is described in that of theologian as indiscreet in attacking mysterious articles, in treating with contempt the faith of the age, in having rejected authorities most revered, and in having entered the lists of controversy with too high an idea of the importance of his peculiar opinions. Between the two characters of philosopher and theologian, existing in one man, M. CUVIER discovers a great difference to subsist; and his language shews his approbation of the one and his dislike of the other. 'The first (he observes,) quietly surrenders his discoveries to the examination of men of science; they are established without difficulty; and they obtain for him uncontested glory. The latter, equipping himself like a warrior, and bristling with erudition and metaphysics, attacks all sects, shakes all opinions, and revolts all consciences, by the ardour which he manifests in his endeavours to overturn them.'

After having detailed at some length an account of the Doctor's philosophical discoveries and writings, which it is altogether unnecessary to repeat in this place, and lamented his obstinacy in the controversy relative to *Phlogiston*, the eulogist does not hesitate to declare that *Priestley* has a right to be considered as one of the fathers of modern Chemistry; and that his glory justly associates with that of the authors of this celebrated revolution in human knowlege.

A French philosopher seems entirely out of his element when he is discussing the differences which subsist between religious sects; and the members of the Institute probably yawned while M. CUVIER was explaining the doctrines of Calvinism, Arianism, and Socinianism, from the first to the last of which Dr. *Priestley* is known to have passed. This part of the memoir amused us, however, by its singularity; though we were mortified at discovering that, in this discussion of religious opinions, a Frenchman could display more enlarged principles

principles of toleration than are generally cherished in Great Britain. The learned Secretary perceives the bad policy of giving a sort of half toleration to Dissenters, and only a half toleration; and he attributes their tendency to join political oppositionists, to the imprudence of government in withholding from them a portion of their civil rights. 'In France, (says he,) it was formerly thought that the Protestants were made republicans by their religion; whereas they were rendered such only by oppression.'—It is observed to the praise of Dr. *Priestley*, that he had none of the narrowness of the sectarian spirit; that 'in his writings in behalf of religious toleration, he included the Catholics with the Protestants:' but that this generosity and expansion of mind did not recommend him to the English; and 'the hatred of the Church party towards him was so extreme, and so much concentrated in his person, that all who wrote against him were sure of being remunerated. Several, indeed, had been made Bishops, * which led *Priestley* jokingly to remark that the Church preferment of England was in his gift.'

We shall not copy the observations of M. CUVIER on the Birmingham riots, nor repeat the incidents which followed in Dr. *Priestley*'s life, till he embarked for America; where his asylum was not such as he expected to find in the Trans-Atlantic region, and where he died in 1804, with the most exemplary faith and resignation.

'Such, (concludes the Memoir,) has been the end of this man, who has been so long accused by his enemies of wishing to overturn all religion and all morals: but whose greatest error, nevertheless, was that of mistaking his vocation, and attaching too much importance to his individual sentiments, on subjects in which the most important of all sentiments ought to be *the love of peace.*'

Several errors occur in this paper. Dr. P. is stated to have been born at Fieldhead near *Bristol*, instead of Fieldhead near *Leeds*; and the year is given 1728 instead of 1733. At the time of the riots, he is mentioned as an old man, nearly septuagenary, when he was only 58 years of age; and his death is said to have been caused by the accidental poisoning of his food, three years previously: a circumstance which we had never heard, and which the representations of authentic details entirely discountenance, by assigning fever as the primary cause of the illness which terminated in his death.—The Doctor's *His-*

* Our readers need not be told that the learned Secretary is not justified in using the plural number in this place, though perhaps they would admit the remark in one instance.

torical and Biographical Charts are also mis-named *Historical and Geographical.*

so far Mo.y.

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

A new Formula for reducing the Apparent into true Distances of the Moon from the Sun or a Star. By A. M. LE GENDRE.—We have already attended in our Review of M. Mendoza's Tables*, to the ingenious method which is explained and established in this memoir. It is not here our intention, therefore, to enter into a history of the several modes employed for clearing the moon's distance, since we have lately given a summary view of them; and it will be sufficient for the present purpose and occasion, if we observe that most of the preceding methods afford the corrected distance, while the present supplies the correction of the distance.

In order to obtain this correction, M. LE GENDRE prefixes a proposition or theorem of this kind: if z involve x and y, then

$$dz = \frac{dz}{dx}.dz + \frac{dz}{dy}.dy$$

Let $\frac{dz}{dx} = \varphi(x,y)$ and $\frac{dz}{dy} = f(x,y)$: then, if we wish for an approximation exact to the second powers of the increments δx, δy, it will only be necessary to substitute x and y in the form for dz, and

$$\varphi\left(x + \frac{\delta x}{2}, y + \frac{\delta y}{2}\right) \text{ &c. instead of } \varphi(x,y) \text{ &c.}$$

This is easily shewn; and it being establised, M. LEGENDRE manifests by very plain and easy methods, that

$$x = -m\left(\frac{\text{sin. } B - \text{sin. } A \text{ cos. } D}{\text{cos. } A \text{ sin. } D}\right) + n\left(\frac{\text{sin. } A - \text{sin. } B \text{ cos. } D}{\text{cos. } B \text{ sin. } D}\right)$$

D being the apparent distance; $D+x$ the true; $A+m$ the corrected height of the moon's centre; and $B-n$ the corrected height of the sun's centre.

By the aid of his prefixed theorem, the author readily transforms the above expression into this:

$$x = \tfrac{1}{2}(\text{sin. } a - \text{sin. } b)\left(\frac{m}{\text{cos. } a} + \frac{n}{\text{cos. } b}\right) \text{cot. } \tfrac{1}{2}d$$

* See M. R. for October last.

$-\frac{1}{2}$ (sin.

$$-\tfrac{1}{2}\,(\sin.\,a+\sin.\,b)\left(\frac{m}{\cos.\,a}-\frac{n}{\cos.\,b}\right)\tan.\,\tfrac{1}{2}d$$

where $a=A+\frac{m}{2}$, $b=B-\frac{n}{2}$ &c.

This expression is undoubtedly very elegant: but, as M. Le Gendre observes, it would be totally incommodious and unfit for practice, unless we could obtain by calculation an easy method of finding the values of $\frac{m}{\cos.a}$ and $\frac{n}{\cos.b}$. These values he next obtains, and finally he arrives at this expression:

$$\left.\begin{aligned} x=&(M+N)\ \sin.\frac{a-b}{2}.\cos.\frac{a+b}{2}.\ \cos.\tfrac{1}{2}d\\ &-(M-N)\ \cos.\frac{a-b}{2}.\sin.\frac{a+b}{2}\ \tan.\tfrac{1}{2}d\end{aligned}\right\}$$

$$M=p+\tfrac{1}{2}p^2\sin.A-\frac{\overline{\varrho A}}{\cos.(A-\frac{1}{2}\varrho A)}$$

$$N=\frac{\overline{\varrho B}}{\cos.(B-\frac{1}{2}\rho B)}-q$$

P being the horizontal parallax of the moon, q the horizontal parallax of the sun, and ϱA the refraction.

In order to render his formula convenient for practice, the author has constructed a table for the computation of $p^2\sin.A$: $-p$ is given by the Ephemeris or Nautical Almanac, and $\frac{\varrho A}{\cos.(A-\frac{1}{2}\varrho A)}$ may be immediately computed from the Table of Refractions.

This is certainly an admirable method for finding the correction of the moon's distance from the stars, and is deduced with great dexterity and display of analytic resource. We have lately commended M. Mendoza's method; and if our leisure permitted, we would gladly institute a comparison between that and the present, on the grounds of facility or practical commodiousness.—The latter part of the memoir contains theorems relative to the correction that is due to the earth's oblateness.

The other astronomical memoirs in this volume, or rather brief astronomical *notices*, are

An Observation of the 18th passage of Mercury over the Sun, Nov. 9th, 1802. By M. La Lande.

Comet discovered on the 12th of July 1801. By Charles Messier.

Observation of the Eclipse of the Sun, August 17th, 1803. By the Same.

Observation of the Eclipse of the Sun, February 11th, 1804. By the Same.

Re-appearance of the Planet of Olbers, or Pallas, on its issuing from the Solar Rays, in the Constellation of Pegasus. By the Same.

Opposition of the Planet Pallas, observed by M.M. LaLande *the Nephew, and* Burckhardt.

Comet of 1793. *Observed near Barcelona.* By M. Mechain.

Occultation of π *of Scorpion, observed July* 17*th*, 1804. By the Same.

It will suffice to inform our astronomical readers that such papers are to be found in this publication.

Count Rumford has communicated several memoirs, or rather successive parts of the same memoir, on *Heat*: in which his *Thermoscope* and other inventions are explained. As, however, the matter and discussions are the same as have been already presented to the English public in the volumes of our Royal Society, (1804), and as we have already expressed our opinion on this subject, any comment on the papers here given to the Institute must be unnecessary.

Researches on the Calculus of Partial Differences, and on the Attractions of Spheroids. By M. Biot.—Since the invention of the integral calculus of partial differences, or rather of partial differentials, it has deservedly engaged the attention of the greatest mathematicians, because almost all questions in physical mathematics depend on this calculus: but, in spite of the efforts of ingenious men, the calculus is still very imperfect; and many partial differential equations cannot be integrated, so that the questions which depend on them would be insoluble, if the solution essentially demanded the integration of the equations. On this account, M. Biot judges it to be expedient to alter the route, and to give to this branch of analysis a new direction; and instead of integrating the equations, he proposes to interpret them directly under their differential form.

In his *Mécanique Céleste, M. La Place* interpreted differential equations without integrating them; that is, from them he deduced several curious and important results. M. Biot here uses an analogous method; and the analytical consideration employed by him being capable of very extensive and varied

applica-

applications, he deems it right to subjoin it, and it is as follows:

'When a function of a certain number of variable quantities is subject to a partial differential equation, its integral may be represented by a series arranged according to the powers of one of the variable quantities: the differential equation only connects together the successive co-efficients of that series, which are thus made to depend the one on the other. The first terms alone remain absolutely indeterminate; and they represent the arbitrary functions necessary to complete the integral.

'If we give at pleasure the form of these first co efficients that contain *not* the variable quantity according to which the expansion is made, and if we substitute their values in the series, all the other co-efficients then assume particular values that belong to them. There remains, then, nothing arbitrary in the expansion; and the form of the generating function is completely determined, so that we may always know how all the values are introduced in the particular case treated.

'The general effect of a partial differential equation, therefore, is to determine completely the form of the function, relatively to all the other variable quantities, when this form is given relatively to all the variable quantities except one.'

These considerations are general, but M. BIOT applies them to the particular case of the attraction of spheroids. This attraction is one of the most intricate points in physical mathematics. Maclaurin first gave certain theorems relating to it by a most ingenious synthetical method; and M. *La Grange* (Memoirs of the Berlin Academy 1773, 1775,) demonstrated the same theorems by a process purely analytical:—but, by the labours of these two great mathematicians, the problem was only partially resolved, that is, resolved only in those cases in which the attracted molecule was within the sphere, or on the surface, or on the prolongation of the axes. M. *Le Gendre*, in the volumes of the Academy of Paris, and in the 10th volume of the papers of *Sçavans Etrangers*, has given a general but a very intricate solution.

If the powers of analysis were sufficient to solve a partial differential equation of the second order, the problem would be resolved: for suppose that a, b, c, are the co-ordinates of a point (M) or elementary molecule, attracted by the molecule m of the spheroid; and let x, y, z, be the co-ordinates of m; then the action of m on M, parallel to the Axis of a,

$$= \frac{(a-x)\quad x\cdot y\cdot z\cdot}{\left\{(a-x)^2+(b-y)^2+(c-^2\right\}^{\frac{3}{2}}} = f^{(a)}.$$

$$\text{Let } V = \int \frac{x \cdot y \cdot z \cdot}{(a-x)^2+(b-y)^2+(c-z)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{then } -\frac{\dot{V}}{a \cdot} = f^{(c)} \quad -\frac{\dot{V}}{b \cdot} = f^{(b)} \quad -\frac{\dot{V}}{b \cdot} = e$$

$f^{(b)}$ $f^{(c)}$ denoting forces parallel to the Axes of b and c,

Again, by deducing the value of $\frac{\ddot{V}}{a \cdot ^2}$ &c. from equation 1, we have

$$\frac{\ddot{V}}{a \cdot ^2} + \frac{\ddot{V}}{b \cdot ^2} + \frac{\ddot{V}}{c \cdot ^2} = o$$

This is the fluxionary or differential equation of which we have spoken; and, as it cannot be integrated, M. *La Place* transforms it, and interprets it so as thence to deduce several curious theorems.—This is the equation, also, which M. Biot interprets in the present memoir; and he transforms it by making a', b', c', three quantities introduced, the functions of a, b, c, thus:

$$a' = f\ (a, b, c,)$$
$$b' = f_{\prime}\ (a, b, c,)$$
$$c' = f_{\prime\prime}\ (a, b, c,)$$

He then finds the equation, $L=o$, by substituting for the values of $\frac{\ddot{V}}{a \cdot ^2}$, $\frac{\ddot{V}}{b \cdot ^2}$, &c. in the equation,

$$\frac{\ddot{V}}{a \cdot ^2} + \frac{\ddot{V}}{b \cdot ^2} + \frac{\ddot{V}}{c \cdot ^2} = o\ ;$$

and lastly he assumes

$$V = \varphi + a'\varphi_{\prime} + \frac{a'^2}{1.2} \cdot \varphi_2 + \text{&c.}$$

in which φ, $\varphi_{\prime}$, &c. are functions of b' and c' without a'.

Now, if the fluxionary co-efficients of V are formed from this series, and substituted in the equation $L=o$, it will appear that the functions φ_2, φ_3, &c. depend on the functions φ, $\varphi_{\prime}$, which are indeterminate. Again, forming from the expanded series

$$\frac{V \cdot}{a_{\prime} \cdot}, \quad \frac{V \cdot}{b_{\prime} \cdot}, \quad \frac{V \cdot}{c_{\prime} \cdot},$$

it easily appears that the series representing their value are completely determined when the first terms of the series are known; that is, when the values of

$$\frac{V \cdot}{a_{\prime} \cdot} \quad \frac{V \cdot}{b_{\prime}}$$

are

are known, when $a'=o$.

The values of $\frac{\dot{V}}{a'.}$, &c. however, are dependent on those of $\frac{\dot{V}}{a.}$ &c.; and the one can be known from the other in the case when $a=o$; and since the values of the co-efficients $\frac{\dot{V}}{a'.}$, &c. are known in all cases when the values are known in the particular case of $a'=o$, the values of $\frac{\dot{V}}{a.}$, $\frac{\dot{V}}{b.}$, &c. will be completely known also. But $a'=o$ is the equation to any surface, and consequently $-\frac{\dot{V}}{a.}$, $\frac{\dot{V}}{b.}$ &c. express the attraction of the spheroid on the points in space that belong to the surface of which the equation is $a'=o$. Hence M. Biot deduces this general theorem:

'In order to know the attraction of any spheroid whatever on any points whatever in space, it is sufficient to know the attractions of the same spheriod on all the points of a surface that may, at pleasure, be assumed.'

This is a very curious theorem: the simplest case would be to assume $a'=o$, the equation to the surface of the attracting spheroid. In this case, from the theorem, we may affirm that the attraction of the spheroid on all points in space may be determined, when the attraction of the spheroid on all points situated on its surface is known.

We shall attend to the papers in this volume which belong to other divisions of science, at a future opportunity.

[*To be continued.*]

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R.W.

Art. XV. *Mémoires et Lettres, &c.* Memoirs and Letters of the Marshal De Tessé, containing ancedotes and facts never before published; relating to the reigns of Louis XIV and Louis XV. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

No statement is made by the editor of these volumes, from which we can learn where the manuscripts of this military courtier, who made a considerable figure in his day, have been thus long concealed, nor how they have been at length obtained: neither have we the means of ascertaining in what degree they have been followed in drawing up the narrative before us. It is said, however, that no papers are inserted but those of which the originals can be produced, or at least *authentic copies* of

them. The publication rests its claim to notice on the ground of its anecdotes and facts relating to the two reigns mentioned in the title page, and which it pretends for the first time to present to the public.

The Comte DE TESSÉ was born in the year 1651, and was devoted from his infancy to the profession of arms; in which he repeatedly distinguished himself, and arrived at the highest rank: but his success was not wholly owing to his military services, since a very considerable share of address, and an early introduction to the mighty *Louvois* must have in no slight degree aided and accelerated his promotion. He was regarded in his time as a man of talents, of eminent valour, and distinguished by many good qualities, with which was mixed no small portion of alloy. He was little scrupulous about the means of advancement, but executed most of the charges which he undertook with ability and fidelity; and many of them were important as well in the diplomatic as the military line. He was engaged in several negotiations at the court of Turin and Madrid, and was employed in some considerable military commands.

Early in his career, we find him sent on one of those missions of conversion which so deeply tarnish the memory of Louis XIV; we mean the famous *dragooning expeditions* against the Protestants. M. DE TESSE appears to have undertaken this object as he would have fulfilled any other duty which his profession imposed on him, and to have mixed good humour and pleasantry with the tragic service assigned to him. From a letter which he wrote to *Louvois* on this occasion, we shall translate a few passages respecting the city of Orange; which Louis held under the pretence of sequestration, but which was not formally ceded to him till a considerable time later.

'The success of the conversions fully answers the expectations which I had formed, and imparted to you; the whole city of Orange is converted, and the state has adopted the same resolution; the gentlemen of the long robe, who shewed a little more resistance, came to the same determination twenty-four hours later; and the whole has been effected peaceably, without violence or confusion. The minister C., the patriarch of the country, alone refuses to hear reason; the president of the court of law, who seemed disposed to aspire to martyrdom, as well as the rest of the legal corps, would have become Mohammedans if I had desired it. As to points of faith, the bishop is fully satisfied.'

It is related that the Count sent a detachment to a village, in order to oblige the inhabitants to become converts: but the poor people, terrified by the sight of the soldiers, instantly declared that they were ready to abjure, and consequently the troops were withdrawn. The captain of the party, regretting that

that his prey was taken from him, on his return said to the Count, "I fancy that they only deceive you; they did not allow us time even to instruct them."

This business, though bad enough, was not the worst in which M. DE T. was employed; for under the Maréchal *de Lorges*, he was engaged in burning the towns of the Palatinate. He afterward served with repute in Italy, under the brave and magnanimous *Catinat*. As the plenipotentiary of Louis XIV. he concluded a treaty of peace with the Duke of Savoy, and he successfully negotiated a marriage between a Princess of Savoy and the Duke of Burgundy.

On the authority of the Count, it is here said that Charles of Spain sent the Duke of *Uzeda*, the first gentleman of his bedchamber, to Rome, in order to consult his Holiness, assisted by such of his cardinals as he deemed most capable of giving advice on the subject of the succession to his crown: a measure which was taken privately, without the knowlege of his queen, or any of his courtiers. The reigning Pope was *Pignatelli*, who had assumed the name of Innocent XII. After some difficulties, he at length consented to take the matter into consideration in his council, at which attended the cardinals *Albano*, (afterward Clement XI.) *Spinola*, and *Spada*, who advised him to appoint the Duke of Anjou as Charles's successor. The Count states this communication as having been made to him by the Duke of *Uzeda* himself.

Though M. DE TESSÉ acquired distinction in the Italian campaigns, he stained his reputation with a foul intrigue, grounded equally on ingratitude and injustice; we mean, by an attempt to disgrace at court his friend and benefactor, the Maréchal *Catinat*, in hopes of superseding him, and being raised to the chief command. In both these aims he was disappointed, but he so far succeeded in injuring *Catinat*, that, though the latter remained with the army, the weak *Villeroi* was sent to take the post of honour. This is a foul blot on the memory of the Count.

The Duke of *Berwick*, who commanded the forces of the two kings in Spain, having differences with the Duke *de Grammont*, and being out of favour with the queen, the Maréchal DE TESSÉ was sent there to replace him; and we find a curious paper written by the latter, dated in 1705, giving an account of the state of the court of Madrid at that period. The king (Philip V.) is represented as in the highest degree indolent, as possessing no decision, and never continuing long in the same mind; and as entirely governed by the queen, who, though of good capacity, was a total stranger to state affairs, and never would attend to them, unless some person, male or female, obtained

her whole confidence, and thus rendered them interesting to her. She did not relish the form which was observed in Spain, and would soon have broken through it, in order to live in that free manner which was allowed in France and Piedmont, but the king loved solitude more than the Spaniards themselves, and would have abandoned himself to it altogether, if etiquette had permitted.

The picture which the French commander gives of the Spanish ministers is indicative of a government in the last stage of decrepitude. One is old and incapable, and another is unacquainted with his particular province; a third has some general knowiege, but is a stranger to detail; and another refuses all responsibility, and only acts the part of a *Commis*. 'These men, (says the lively Gallican,) together with a young king wholly governed by his wife, form the envied councils of the court of Madrid; and these four ministers are always at variance, never uniting except to oppose any measure that may establish the authority of the king.' The manner of holding the council, and the state of the war department, are represented in the same ludicrous light; and he speaks of all orders of the state as feeling extreme indifference respecting the choice which was to be made from among the candidates for the crown. The Duke of *Medina Celi*, the Count of *Aguilar*, and two archbishops, are stated to be the only persons, besides the ministers, who concerned themselves in political affairs; and M. DE TESSÉ says that the rest of the grandees devoted themselves wholly to their private intrigues and cabals, and were incapable of being roused, unless a change in their usages was attempted, to which they would on no account submit. 'Every thing in Spain is in an eternal state of suspence; all is doing and undoing; and the minister is changed every six months.'

It would seem that this Maréchal was more distinguished by an insight into men and manners, than by the higher attainments in the science of war; and that he was better calculated to excel in diplomacy, than to execute succesfully the duties of a commander. He is no sooner elevated to superior rank than his laurels fade. He attempted, without success, to raise the siege of Barcelona, and became the object of epigrams and pasquinades. If he drove the Duke of Savoy from Toulon, he suffered Suza to be taken before his eyes; and he experienced, on the part of his second in command, the Count *de Medavi*, the same treatment which the revered *Catinat* had received from himself: with this difference only, that *Medavi* could not be reproached with secretly doing ill offices to a

patron

patron and benefactor. On the fall of Suza, M. DE TESSÉ retired from the army, and never again appeared on the field. He had the good fortune, however, of still retaining powerful friends at court, in the persons of Madame *de Maintenon* and the youthful Dutchess *de Bourgogne*, whose marriage he had negociated.

A memoir on the affairs of Italy, which he put into the hands of his sovereign, occasioned him to be sent as ambassador extraordinary into that country. It is highly creditable to the author, discovers accurate information relative to the state of Italy, and suggests measures which seem well adapted to circumstances: but they failed in a great measure, owing to the superior strength of the allies, and to the weakness and want of resources of France. Two letters which he wrote to the pope, (and which, it appears from the memoirs of the time, made a considerable noise,) are remarkably free, and shew that the dragooning missionary quartered among the French protestants was much more zealous for the political interests of his master, than affected by deference to the common father of Christendom.

In the year 1717, the Czar Peter, in the course of his European tour, paid a visit to France, then subject to the Regent; and M. de TESSÉ was appointed to meet him on his way, to attend him while in Paris, and afterward to confer with his ministers respecting a treaty of alliance between the two powers. The proposals of the Czar, the answers of the French minister, and the private instructions given to him, which are here inserted, throw great light on the state of Europe at that period, and form by no means the least interesting part of these volumes.

It was proposed by the Czar that, as Sweden had almost ceased to be a power, Russia should take its place in French alliance: he offered to guarantee all the treaties of France, and the alliance of Prussia and Poland; and he stated that he was aware of the apprehensions excited by the growing power of Austria, against which he offered the same assistance with that which in times past had been derived from Sweden.—It was, however, the determination of the Regent to enter into no treaty with the Czar, that should derogate from any of the subsisting treaties with other powers, and particularly his engagements with Sweden. He seems also most solicitous on no account to enter into any relations incompatible with the treaty with England and Holland. He says that he had entertained great fears that the storm, raised in England against

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the ministers who made the peace of Utrecht, might have led to a war between the two countries, and he intimates that his more early foreign measures were directed to ward off, if possible, that calamity.

M. DE TESSÉ still continued in favour at court; and in the procession at the coronation of Louis XV. an honorable office was assigned to him. Having borne a part, however, in this brilliant exhibition, piety severed him from the world, and disposed of him in the retirement of Camaldules. The close of his days proved that his nature was never without a strong tincture of religion, however lightly and airily he might have carried himself in the heyday of life; and it cannot be denied that he had gone some lengths in this way, since he could not refrain from a species of profane and unfeeling levity, while giving an account of his odious mission to dragoon the wretched protestants into apostacy. We often find him also speaking with little reserve in regard to the clergy, and treating most cavalierly the pope himself. Yet, though he played with the externals, it does not appear that, even in jest, he ever cast any ridicule on the grand fundamentals of Christianity; and indeed loose principles of that sort had not, at this period, pervaded the circles in which rank and fashion were accustomed to move.

Nevertheless, the Maréchal devotee had not long followed this new sort of life, before he was tempted to relinquish it, in order to re-enter on the stage of this vain world. It was thought that the court of Madrid was too complaisant towards that of St. James's, through the influence of the minister *Grimaldo*, who had all the support of the new Queen Elizabeth Farnese; and it shews the distinction in the diplomatic line to which the Count had attained, that he was selected as the most proper person to restore the wonted confidence and good understanding which had prevailed between the two branches of the house of Bourbon. For some time, he resisted the temptation: but, on being promised a high situation in the household of the new queen, with the reversion of the place to his son, he yielded. About this time, Philip V. listening to his confessor *Bermudez*, who is represented as being a complete cheat, was deliberating about abdicating the throne; and one of the objects of the Maréchal's mission was to prevent this resolution from being carried into effect: but he arrived too late for that purpose; the abdication had been consummated, and the late noble hermit of Camaldules was introduced at San Ildefonso to the royal recluse.

During

During the Count's residence in Spain, Louis the new king of that country, was consigned to an early grave; and in consequence of his death, in order to guard against the evils of a minority, the retired monarch was solicited from all quarters (except by some of his ministers,) to resume the discarded sceptre. These applications were zealously seconded by the queen, who had little taste for religious retirement. The domestic scenes, and the ministerial intrigues, which were occasioned by this circumstance, are here minutely detailed; and if they are not instructive, they are amusing. Philip, in fine, again assumed the reins of government; and the Maréchal was very active in accomplishing this event: but it does not appear that his mission was attended with any other great effect. He was recalled in time to escape the unpleasant consequences of the affront soon afterward put on the court of Madrid by the return of the Infanta, (whom the Regent intended for the wife of Louis XV.) which was, after the death of *M. d'Orléans*, one of the first measures of the Duke *de Bourbon*.

While resident in the Spanish capital, M. DE TESSÉ was high in the favour of the king and queen. Philip had granted him the order of the Golden Fleece; the queen herself decorated him with the collar of the order, set in diamonds; and he was loaded with other presents of great value.—He did not long survive his return, but died in May 1725, aged 74.

Though the subject of these memoirs be scarcely of consequence sufficient to employ the pencil of history, and though some traits belonging to him are not advantageous to his fame, he was connected with transactions at home, with missions abroad, and with military expeditions, that form part of the history of a period which, more than any other in modern times, has fixed the attention of mankind. He appears to have possessed bravery, and to have gained distinction in secondary situations, but to have made a false estimate of himself when he aspired to the command in chief. Far inferior in qualities of mind and heart to *Catinat*, whom poets celebrated, whom philosophers esteemed, and whom heroes revered, he died abounding in wealth, and loaded with honors; while the modest victor at Staffarde and Marsaille quitted the scene not richer than he was when first he entered on it. The one, however, will scarcely be known to posterity, while the other will strongly attract its sympathies, and live in its respectful recollection. Truly, indeed, does it appear that *Voltaire* thus highly characterized him, in a couplet of the *Henriade*;

" *Catinat réunit, par un rare assemblage,*
Les talens du guerrier & les vertus du sage." Jo.

ART.

ART. XVI. *Campagnes de la Grande-Armée, &c. i. e.* The Campaigns of the Grand Army, and of the Army of Italy, in the year xiv. (1805); or a Collection of the Bulletins, and of all Official Papers relative to the War with Russia and Germany, and the Discourses pronounced in the Senate and Tribunate on that Occasion: to which is added the Treaty of Presburgh, and a Geographical Dictionary of the Cities, Villages, Rivers, and other Points on which the Armies were engaged in this glorious campaign. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s.

No sooner does Napoleon order out his war-horse, than all his ministers, counsellors, magistrates, and clergy, are made to join in the war-cry. The hostile manifestoes of the government are accompanied and followed by philippics against the devoted state which is to experience the prowess of the French chief. Hostilities having been once determined, the form of consultation is observed in the cabinet; the senate, the hall of legislation, the tribunate, the temples of the Most High, all ring with denunciations against the devoted power, its government, and its subjects; with appeals and invocations to the God of armies, protesting the entire innocence and complete pacific disposition of the Great Nation, and of its moderate and benevolent chief. It is not sufficient to raise the conscripts, and to march them to join the murderous and pillaging legions, but the passions of this people, so readily excited, are rouzed to frenzy; while it is to be feared that many of the unthinking part of mankind in those countries, which have not had experience of Gallic arts, lend too ready an ear to their hardy falsehoods and gross misrepresentations. The French press is locked up, except when purposes of imposition and delusion are to be answered, and then no slight use is made of it. Of the effects of which it is productive, we do not believe that the adversaries of France have been adequately aware; nor have they been sufficiently alert in their exertions to counteract them by the adoption of similar means.—Many of the papers here collected are unfortunately important documents for the history of the period: but the volume, as it strikes us, more eminently claims our notice as illustrating the arts and practices by which the enemy of European tranquillity assists his military operations. By the contrivances to which we have alluded, all the descriptions of men in authority, all classes and orders, even the ministers of the altar, are made to join in the cry that is designed to animate the dogs of war.

Jo.

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